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ABSTRACT

The number of illiterates in Africa is increasing, thereby lending urgency to the need for universal adult education and functional literacy compaigns, according to chapter 1 of this detailed research report. Chapter 2 discusses the meaning, history, and nature of adult education in other countries (briefly), and in Africa (in greater detail). Chapter 3 deals with diagnosing the problem of illiteracy, its causes and cures, putting Africa in a global perspective. The author notes the strong correlation between excessive population growth and illiteracy on the one hand, and illiteracy and poverty on the other, making illiteracy part of a viscious circle. One way to break the circle, the author sees, lies in treating literacy as a "possible dream" in an educational system serving as an instrument of social transformation, just as Freire advocates doing. Chapter 4 describes literacy campaigns of the past, the shift in emphasis from traditional to functional literacy, and the mass projects undertaken in Cuba, Vietnam, and the USSR. The author also discusses the five-year UNESCO Experimental World Literacy Program which called for local initiative with international assistance. Examples and trends at work in Africa today comprise the body of chapter 5, with special focus on Tanzania's basic primers. The final chapter contains observations and recommendations, broken down into categories, and the table of contents of the report's continuation (part 2). The appendix includes a comparative statistical analysis of African countries. (CP)

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UNIVERSITY OF THE ORANGE FREE STATE

ADULT EDUCATION, LITERACY CAMPAIGNS AND RELEVANT EDUCATIONAL ADAPTATIONS FOR COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT IN AFRICA

U S DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH.
EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF
EDUCATION

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PART I

FUNDAMENTAL FACTS AND PRINCIPLES IN PRACTICAL PERSPECTIVE

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PREFACE

At present the Research Unit for Education System Planning (RUEP) has an ongoing research project collecting, analysing and systematising information that could be of value to educational planners responsible for the planning of educational systems of developing countries in Southern Africa.

Analyses carried out by researchers of RUEP and requests put forward by educational planners of the developing countries emphasize that adult education, literacy campaigns and educational adaptations for community development are outstanding problem areas for educational planners. It stands to reason that RUEP decided to undertake as a first step an in-depth study of the fundamental facts and principles related to these aspects of a developing educational system.

Typical of this field of study is the rapid changes taking place and the paucity of data referring to Africa. There are few reliable sources on statistics of non-formal education in general and adult education in particular of real use to educational planners of black states in Southern Africa.

RUEP was fortunate to obtain the services of an experienced researcher, Prof J J Fourie, who was prepared to participate as a part-time researcher and to do a literature study on Adult Education, Literacy Campaigns and Relevant Educational Adaptations for Community Development in Africa. With the completion of Part I which deals with Fundamental Facts and Principles in Practical Perspective we intend to provide a source of general information and a comparative statistical analysis of Adult Education and Literacy Campaigns in Africa. A special word of thanks to Prof Fourie for his dedicated work. Many hours of painstaking scanning of literature and interviews were spent in preparing this report. My gratitude also to the Documentation Section of the Research Unit for Education System Planning for a special effort in search of relevant material. The conscientious work of Mrs M A Burger made the task easier. Mrs M Fourie read all of the typescript.

The financial assistance of the Committee re Development Research in connection with the research programme of RUEP is hereby acknowledged with thanks.

D. Vermaak

PROF D VERMAAK
HEAD: RESEARCH UNIT FOR EDUCATION SYSTEM PLANNING
DECEMBER 1978

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INTRODUCTORY REMARKS

Before retiring early in 1975 as dean of the Faculty of Education of the Free State University, it had been my privilege for many years to be personally involved in the work of national and regional education councils dealing with research projects and practical schemes for education system planning and problems of a divergent nature in the field of education. On being requested to work as professor emeritus on a research project for adult education and community development in Africa on behalf of the Research Unit for Education System Planning of the Orange Free State University, I was therefore placed in the fortunate position of being able to continue my life's work and of being of some service to my country in my retired years, particularly with a view to the cherished ideal of a dozen or more well-developed independent states, ultimately forming a Commonwealth of Nations of Southern Africa.

After scanning some eighty works of authority for a scientific study of the subject of adult education and scrutinizing the relevant statistical data available, various education reports and most of the schemes and efforts put forth for eradicating illiteracy and enhancing community development in Africa, it was with deep concern that I had to learn some of the realities of Africa: that millions of dollars had been spent and much had been attempted but not much achieved to relieve the problem situations of illiteracy, lack of skilled manpower, destitution, poverty and under-development still confronting the African continent. It became clear that, in spite of serious intentions and efforts in some countries to combat these impediments to development, many mistakes have been and are still being made which could have been eliminated by a change of attitudes and mentality and more realistic approaches. In view of the fact that the Black nations of South and

Southern Africa cannot afford to make the same mistakes, the pitfalls had to be sorted and pointed out. Statistical evidence will also be submitted to prove that it will be of no avail to nurse the symptoms without curing the cause, one of the main causes being the uncontrolled birth rates and population explosion nullifying the efforts to improve the socio-economic and educational standards of living of the ever-increasing masses in most of these countries. More reasons will be spelt out in due course, emphasizing the need for adult education and challenging the old Roman saying that there is always something new from Africa.

It will be evident from the Reference List that the "Fundamental Facts and Principles in Practical Perspective", carefully selected to cover the six chapters of Part I of this report, are strongly supported by all works of authority on the subject of adult education and community development. It has also been the intention to point out commendable adult education strategies as well as vulnerable spots and danger signals from the experience of adult education work and development projects in parts of the African continent and the world, specifically for the sake of those in charge of future development programs for African states and for the Black nations of Southern Africa who may be anxious to learn from the experience of others before finding themselves in the position of embarking on their own schemes with greater care and counsel. Part II of the report - "Prospects, Procedures and Practices detailed" - will, as hoped, be submitted in 1979 to complete the study and supplement Part I of the report.

If this investigation could ultimately be a contribution to serving the interests of the underdeveloped peoples of this continent, the effort would have been highly rewarded.

J J FOURIE

CHAPTER 1

ORIENTATION, STATISTICS AND TRENDS

1.1. NEW FRONTIERS AND DIMENSIONS

Some twenty years ago Cramer and Browne found in their comparative study of national systems that "One of the frontiers of education today, and one which is the scene of intense activity and development, is that of continuing education of adults. Leaders and citizens in many parts of the world are realizing that it is not enough to rely upon the formal education programs set up for children and youth; changing conditions and new demands require that citizens keep themselves abreast of the times. This is done in numberless formal and informal programs .....", summarised as follows for that period (22 years ago): "In many countries officially supported programs and voluntary services exist side by side and reinforce each other; both are affected by the mass communication media of the press, moving pictures, radio, and television. Women's clubs, farmers' organizations, trade unions, service clubs, organizations like the Red Cross, YMCA, YWCA, and others are constantly at work in the adult field" (Cramer and Browne, 1956, p. 553).

This "new" frontier was, however, already pointed out sixty years ago. According to Kallen "it was Henry Adams who" - in the year 1918 - "first gave ... drama to the idea that education is not limited to schooling, that it is neither the same as schooling nor stops when schooling stops; that, indeed, it is the same as growing old as well as growing up, and stops only when life ends" (Kallen, 1962, p. 3). In a recent thesis on "Provisions for Adult Education in Ghana and West Africa" it is categorically stated that education today is viewed less as a specific activity necessary for a particular age of life and "more a continuing and ceaseless effort to make possible the free and full association of all citizens"; and again that "Throughout many parts of the world there is an increasing sense of urgency about adult education due to the awareness of man's need to keep pace in understanding with rapidly changing technology" (Agyekum, 1973, p. 1).

In a Unesco World Survey of Education the development of "out-of-school education .... designed to continue the work of the schools, to complement family life, and to extend the education of working youths and adults" was outlined as a "Characteristic feature of the educational expansion" (Unesco, 1971, p. 28) of the present century. In this regard Unesco could report that the establishment of institutions to provide this form of education "has become an increasing preoccupation of the state" as well as of private organizations, and that some of these institutions "are for adults only and aim at providing a general education or an increase in knowledge, or at combating illiteracy", whilst "Others are concerned simply with improving vocational and technical competence, but they exist in a variety of forms: full-time or part-time vocational courses, apprentice training on the job, specialized institutes for adults already trained and in employment but preparing to assume positions requiring higher qualifications" (Unesco, 1971, pp. 28 - 29). The provision also includes correspondence courses, in some countries a shortening of the working day by two hours (without loss of salary) for a period of eight to forty days (as required), "courses intended simply to intensify the value of leisure activities and the enjoyment of the common cultural heritage" and "the establishment of a nation-wide network of youth centres and cultural centres ..... that will cater for a wide range of educational needs (cine-clubs, libraries, study-circles, art classes, sport clubs, and so on)" (Unesco, 1971, p. 29). From whichever angle it is viewed, technologically, socio-economically or culturally, this "new frontier" of "an increasing sense of urgency about adult education" has currently added a new dimension to the traditional system of formal education programs set up entirely for children and youth at school and college (university) level. The degree and manner in which this latter statement will have relevance to the educationally lesser and underdeveloped countries of the Third World and particularly of Africa will, however, have to be assessed in this study.

1.2. STATISTICAL ASSESSMENTS AND THE CONTINENT OF AFRICA

(a) It may be a worn out-statement that the African continent has problems of its own, but viewed from the educational angle, we are in need of a full perspective on whatever problems there may be in order to be able to offer possible solutions for a viable educational strategy. For this purpose we have to rely upon statistical evidence for a diagnosis of the overall situation. This also applies to the field of adult education, although we are faced with a major obstacle in this field that "The lack of coherent and systematic statistics on adult education, and particularly of internationally comparable data, makes it hardly possible to quantify ..... development here" (Unesco, 1972, p. 5). John Lowe maintains that "....statistics about adult education are almost universally unreliable for several reasons. First, agencies producing facts and figures interpret its scope in a variety of ways ..... Secondly, methods of collecting data tend to be conspicuously unscientific and there is evidence that some institutions are addicted to padding enrolment figures. Thirdly, there is in general an awesome gap between aspiration and reality, between what policy-makers .... honestly believe is happening and what is in fact taking place in the field. In more than one developing country, imposing charts and tables are produced ..... but on close inspection they turn out to be imaginary" and "misleading evidence ..... often reinforced by more or less elaborate window-dressing" (Lowe, 1970, p. 2). As for Africa, it is pointed out in a Unesco document that basic statistics are not available in a large number of countries of the Region, that they are incomplete in some cases, sometimes several years late, whilst "In certain cases the reliability of some of the data may also be questioned" (Unesco, 1975a, p. 2). These are some of the problems we have with statistics, particularly from developing countries. However, before we can find a cure, we have to find the cause, and there is hardly any other method to rely upon for a complete diagnosis of the situation, even if we have to detect trends only where statistics are incomplete, not comparable, contradictory or questionable.

(b) A detailed "Comparative Statistical Analysis ...." was completed for this study from various sources for 44 African Countries with a view to a more comprehensive perspective on the African scene and was added as Annexure A to this report. The 44 countries are those grouped in a Unesco study on the basis of increasing overall enrolment ratios for the year 1972 and represent 92 per cent of the total population of the continent (Unesco, 1975a, p. 1). Some European and other countries were added to the list solely for the purpose of elucidating, by way of comparison, the African scene in some of the items of the study, and not for an in-depth study of these non-African countries as such, which would have required a much more complete statistical analysis for the non-African countries than was found necessary for the purpose of this study on Africa. The analysis covers five main items with 26 subdivisions for: 1) Some relevant Political data (year of independence, official languages, capital); 2) Some Geographical and demographic data with regard to Area, Population, Density and Population Growth ; 3) General Standard of Education and Development , elucidating, inter alia, the percentage of the population with no schooling, the percentage illiteracy rate, etc.; 4) The Standard of Education analysed: first and second level school enrolments and related data ; 5) Standard of Education analysed with regard to Provision for skilled manpower .

Although the incompleteness of statistical data mentioned above, mainly concerns the different subdivisions for item 3 in this Analysis, it will be particularly obvious from the development of human resources at first and second level education (item 4) and the provision for skilled manpower at third level education (item 5) that all the African countries in this Analysis (total 44) are in some way or other in a state of underdevelopment and badly in need of adult education programs.

1.3. HUMAN RESOURCES AND AFRICA

It is maintained that "The basic problem of most of the underdeveloped countries is not a poverty of natural resources, but the underdevelopment of their human resources", and that technological aid is not the answer to their problems if it cannot fit the capacities of their peoples (Muncie, 1973, pp. 6 - 8). Statistics prove that the African continent ranks the lowest on the educational ladder with regard to the vital importance of the development of a country's human resources for the implementation of technical aid. Despite statistical proof that the total average enrolment (primary + secondary + tertiary) more than doubled in Africa from 1960 to 1972 (Unesco, 1975f, p. 98), the position with regard to provision for skilled manpower was still as follows in 1973: only 1,4% of the total enrolments for the three levels of education were for third level education in Africa, and only 0,7% for Africa excluding the Arab States, as against 3,5% in Asia excluding the Arab States, 4,0% in Latin America, 6,7% in Europe, 8,8% in the USSR and 15,6% in North America (Unesco, 1976d, pp. 60 - 61). Even a quick glance at the columns for the different African and (by way of comparison) some European and other countries under items 5.1 to 5.5 of Annexure A will clearly indicate that, of the African countries tabled, only two Arab States, Egypt and to a lesser extent the Libyan Arab Republic may be approaching the standards of the more developed countries with regard to provision for skilled manpower at third level education, whereas most of the African countries have not even approximated a very bad start in this specialized field. It should also be noted that, in addition to their failure to make provision for manpower training at third level education, the Third World countries of the African continent fall very far short of adequate provision for vocational and technical education at second and third level enrolments, only 9,9% of the total enrolment in Africa excluding the Arab States being for vocational and technical training, as against (for example) 22,7% in the "developed" countries and 32,3% in Europe (Unesco, 1975f, p.92). Moreover, no reference has yet been made to the fact that these African countries - also those that have enjoyed independence for a long time like Ethiopia (since earliest times), Egypt (1922) and Liberia (1947) - are still very far from the standards of the more developed countries with regard to net enrolment percentages for their first and second level age-groups (Cf. Annexure A).

The impact and implications of this alarming picture for Africa, as well as the fact that its backward position with regard to skilled manpower and technical training makes provision for adult education more imperative for community development in Africa than in any other part of the world, will have to be more fully analysed in the following chapters of this report. To quote Lowe by way of introduction: "The reason why governments of developing countries have to treat adult education seriously is plain enough. Resolved to achieve rapid economic and social development and to promote national unity they must somehow produce a skilled and informed adult population. Capital investment alone will avail them nothing if human skills are wanting; President Kaunda of Zambia might have been echoing the conviction of many heads of state when he recently affirmed that 'skilled and educated manpower is Zambia's scarcest resource'. In developing countries 'education for nation-building' is no idle slogan but a recipe for political survival" (Lowe, 1970, p. 1). But words may be of little meaning when put to the real test of ingenuity in practical manipulation. These words of the Zambian President were spoken some ten years ago and, in view of the fact that Zambia which used to be a rich country with many natural resources before independence, is today - after 14 years of independence - virtually on the verge of bankruptcy, the following concluding sentence to the above statement by an impartial observer from the British Isles may be of significance for purposes of this study: "Yet it is salutary to note that a politician's recognition of the central importance of adult education does not mean that in practice he is either able or willing to match words with deeds" (Lowe, 1970, p. 1).

1.4. ILLITERACY AND AFRICA

Underdevelopment of a country's human resources is characteristic of an illiterate community. In 1976

L A Okraku, Principal Organizer in the Institute of Adult Education at Kumasi, Ghana, wrote that illiteracy had been identified as one of the major obstacles to development and that the second half of this century was a period in which international concern for illiteracy was highlighted (Cf. Okraku, 1976, p.3). The extent to which illiteracy still plays a decisive role in the underdevelopment of the African continent will be obvious from the statistical data under item 3 of Annexure A which will be fully analysed in the following chapters. In a country like Togo, for example, approximately 69% of the total population (and 83% of its women population) from 15 to 24 years, and approximately 90% of its total population (97% of its women population) above 24 years, had never been to school ten years after independence (Annexure A). It is obvious from this table that, according to the latest available statistics, the adult literacy rate of countries like Ghana and Kenya was only about 20 - 25 per cent, between 10 and 21 per cent in countries like Morocco and Nigeria, less than 30 per cent in Algeria and below 5 per cent in Ethiopia (Annexure A). In 1977 J Elliot wrote that "The importance of literacy in making people more productive has been emphasised ..... but it should be remembered that the majority of people at present engaged in economic production in Africa are probably illiterate. What is more depressing is that according to Unesco, the number of illiterates is increasing, where it has been estimated that in 32 out of 43 countries of Africa over 70 per cent of the population 15 years and older are unable to read and write. This is not only a vast moral and social problem, it is an economic problem" (Elliot, 1977, p.19) which will have to be dealt with more fully in this report on Adult Education.

1.5. POPULATION EXPLOSION AND THE PROBLEMS OF PEDAGOGY

(a) Statistical proof will be submitted in this report that there is a strong correlation between excessive population growth on the one hand, and illiteracy, underdevelopment and consequently a stronger need/demand for adult education on the other. A preview of the situation could disclose more or less the following line of succession: uncontrolled birth rates - excessive population growth - younger age structure of total population - a larger percentage children of school-going age requiring schooling - undue population pressure on limited economic and human resources in underdeveloped countries - shortage of trained manpower for a well-equipped teaching profession - more children not attending school and more school dropouts - increase of number of illiterates and increased underdevelopment - a stronger need for adult education. Whether this stronger need has, however, led to a stronger demand and adequate provision for adult education on the African continent will have to be assessed.

(b) Some statistical evidence has to be pre-considered in the above regard:

(i) Africa has the highest crude birth rate but also the highest crude death rate in the world: for the 1965 - 1970 period it was recorded as 46,7% and 21,2% respectively, as against, for example, 44,3% and 16,8% for South Asia, 33,1% and 15,3% for the Mainland of China, 18,0% and 10,2% for Europe, and 18,0% and 7,0% respectively for Japan (Jones, 1975, p.11). With the death rates decreasing, the projection for Africa shows an increase in the annual rate of population growth (Jones, 1975, p.11).

(ii) Gavin Jones points out that the population growth rates in developing countries are well over double (2½ times) those of developed countries (Jones, 1975, p. 10). As far as Africa is concerned, this will be evident from Table I hereunder which clearly shows the increase of the annual growth rate in Africa as against the downward trend in most of the other regions.

TABLE I - ANNUAL GROWTH RATES: PERCENTAGES AND PROJECTIONS[1]

	1970-1975	1975-1980	1980-1985
More developed countries	1,0%	1,1%	1,0%
World Total	2,0	2,1	2,0
Less developed countries	2,5	2,4	2,4
Regions under 2% growth rate:			
Europe	0,7		0,7
USSR	1,0		1,2
Japan	1,2		0,8
Northern America	1,3		1,5
East Asia	1,6	1,6	1,5
Regions above 2% growth rate:			
South Asia	2,8	2,7	2,6
Latin America	2,9	2,9	2,8
Africa	2,8	2,9	3,0

(iii) It is also obvious from the above figures that the African continent which has the highest birth and growth rates, will also have the youngest age structure. The percentage of the total population under 15 years has been tabulated as follows for 1975 (Projections for 1985 are given in brackets) (Unesco, 1975a, p. 4 par. 12): East Asia 34,0 (31,7); South Asia 43,5 (42,0); Latin America 42,1 (41,4); Africa 44,2 (45,3).

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[1] Compiled from: Jones, 1975, Table 2.1; Unesco, 1975a, p. 4 par. 12

(iv) Growth in the age-group 5 - 14 years, i.e. the normal school-age group, is especially rapid in Africa, since Africa has the highest birth rate in the world (Unesco, 1975a, p.4 par. 13).

(c) It is emphatically stated in a Unesco document that "It goes without saying that variations in population growth will affect both the demand for education and the resources needed", and that "The rapid demographic growth in Africa gives rise to a more acute problem of demand for education than in other countries ..... Decreasing infant mortality and the continuation of high birth rates ..... lead to a widening base of school-age children which implies high dependency rates and a high burden on the population of working age to provide schooling for the children" ...... "It seems clear that Africa, with the highest population growth rate in the world (2,9 or 3% per annum) and the youngest age-structure (44% of the population is below 15 years of age) must shoulder an unequalled enrolment burden" (Unesco, 1975a, pp. 26, 34).[1] Considering the fact that 442 people out of every 1000 in Africa were under the age of 15 in 1975, while in the more developed countries this figure was only 260 out of every 1000, it must be obvious that the under 15 year old group is relatively speaking, approximately 70% higher in Africa than in the more advanced countries (Unesco, 1975a, p.4 par. 13). Moreover, the figure is increasing, and according to Unesco projections, it will represent 73% more in Africa than in the more developed countries in 1985, whilst perspectives on the population trends show that the 5-14 year old group - i.e. the normal school-age group- will almost double for the African continent between 1965 and 1985, and almost be tripled by the year 2000, the figures submitted being as follows (Unesco, 1975a, pp. 4 - 5): 78 million in 1965; 103 million in 1975 (an increase of 25 million); 143 million in 1985 (an increase of 40 million); 220 million in the year 2000 (an increase of 77 million).

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[1] Underlining done for emphasis by JJF

(d) We shall have to come back to the full implications of the statistical evidence on the population explosion and problems of pedagogy in Africa, particularly with regard to the increase of the absolute number of out-of-school school-age population and the subsequent demand for adult education (Chapter 3). From this introductory orientation and in particular the detailed exposition in Chapter 3 it should, however, be clear where Africa's problems begin. It is, however, not clear where they will end. There are more issues at stake.

1.6. "TWO WORLDS" AND THE SEARCH FOR PERSPECTIVES

(a) It may be true that projections for future trends with regard to population growth rates and a more rapid growth rate of the school-age population cast a dark shadow over Africa; it is also true that there are more shadows over this continent of which the population explosion may only be a symptom: the difference in mentality which explains, according to an Austrian writer (Pust, 1975, pp. 14, 18, 20), i.a. the underdevelopment of the African continent; the "rare" customs of matrimony ("seltsame Ehesitten") according to Western standards;

the ancient African tradition and belief that a man's wealth is judged by his number of children; the lacking sense of responsibility and attitude of indifference towards the problems of life. The same author maintains that the vast majority of Africans can only work under supervision and pressure without any initiative of their own, produce just enough food (and nothing more!) so as not to starve of hunger, and live a care-free life, thinking only in terms of today (from sunrise to sunset) and of no tomorrow (Pust, 1975, pp. 3, 20 40). When another German author sees the African continent as a "pedagogically un-opened" part of the world ("ein pädagogisch unerschlossener Erdteil") (Röhrs, 1971, p.22), it must be explained against the above spiritual background. In fact, in our search for perspectives on the educational scene in Africa, cognizance should be taken of the fact that there is a sharp division between "two worlds" in Africa: on the one hand the world of primitive tradition, the world of the veld and the desert, the kraal and the bush, in which the old order of living and thinking has not much changed for the vast majority of Africans in spite of their contact with the civilization of the West; on the other hand, however, the world of civilized standards of living and thinking for a smaller minority of Africans, black and white.

J Oxenham who worked in Zambia, Indonesia and Turkey on the problems of community development and educational programs for literacy had an interesting article recently on the problems of developing countries in an international journal on Adult Education and Development under the heading, "When will they ever learn?" (Oxenham, 1977b, pp. 5 - 6). He commences by quoting Oscar Wilde that "The only lesson we learn from history is that we do not learn from history" and then goes on citing several instances that these words are particularly true of many developing countries, referring in more specific terms to Zambia which had a national Adult Literacy Program running for 12 years ever since she became independent in 1964. The organization for which Zambia won an international prize in 1971 was, however, entirely based on the principle of unpaid volunteer teachers working for love of their country and eventually proved a complete failure. However, in 1976 the Ministry of Education in Zambia published a draft statement on educational reform called Education for Development which was "the outcome of a considerable and expensive effort to learn from other people. Four study groups visited ten countries, pooled their findings at a Report-Back Seminar, and finally, with others, produced what is perhaps the most exciting official document on education since Nyerere's 'Education for Self-Reliance' in 1967", treating education as a life-long process of learning and stating frankly that "The majority of our adult people cannot read or write. Tens of thousands of young people will add to their number, unless dramatic measures are taken .....". However, "For all its new vision there is a disturbing element, the limit of a lesson not learned, even of a lesson deliberately ignored ..... The entire campaign is to hinge on volunteer teachers ..... paid nothing for their services. Commitment to the nation and their fellowmen will be their sole motivation ..... What has changed in Zambia to enable her to ignore the lessons of her own history? Unless something radical has changed or is to be changed, an old catalogue will be re-opened; resources misused, learners disappointed ..... teachers ashamed ..... political and community leaders discouraged, their confidence to develop undermined, their optimism soured perhaps to cynicism. And Oscar Wilde will shrug in heaven".

(b) Evidence will, however, be submitted in a later chapter that the situation is more favourable and much more hopeful as far as the South African Blacks are concerned, and it is the wish of the author as well as that of the Research Unit for Education System Planning of the Free State University which sponsors this study, that the lessons of Africa and the experience and recommendations of world authorities on the subject of adult education and community development, as enunciated in this report, will serve the purpose of bringing realistic perspectives for launching successfully a viable program of educational development for the Black peoples and independent Black States of Southern Africa. To this ideal this work is fervently dedicated.

CHAPTER 2

THE MEANING, HISTORY AND NATURE OF ADULT EDUCATION

2.1. ADULT EDUCATION PRELIMINARILY DEFINED

According to John Lowe there seems to be some confusion about the connotations of the term "adult education", for seemingly similar phenomena are described by "a perplexing welter of names" such as Life-long Education, Continuing Education, Mass Education and "Education Populaire" (Lowe, 1970, p.3). Other terms often used are Permanent Education and Recurrent Education, the use of the former being motivated as follows by the Council of Europe in its book on "Permanent Education" (i) "One cannot do everything at school"; and (ii) "understanding an environment that is constantly changing calls for permanent education"; (iii) as a necessary factor, young people should be so educated "that, when they are adults, they will both desire and be able to continue their education" (Payne, 1975, p. 9).[1]

It is important to note that the words "changing" and "continuing" figure in most of the definitions, the latter also emphasizing the appropriateness of the term "Continuing Education". In Paul Bergevin's "Philosophy of Adult Education" the following explanation is offered: "If we see our society as an evolving, developmental order attempting to offer the individuals who compose it the freedom necessary to grow and express themselves as creative beings, then ..... we have to have the knowledge to function in such a society ..... Since we are involved in this continuing, evolving process, our learning needs as adults are continuous and changing"; and again: "Education for adults can be any kind of learning that adds to their fund of knowledge, changes their attitudes or views or opinions,

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1) Underlining done for emphasis by JJF

broadens their perspectives, or alters their behaviour. It can be 'the organized-classroom or school type' or 'an independent program in which the learner directs his own study; or it can be a group effort called participation training" (Bergevin, 1967, pp. 162 - 163).

Payne quotes Dr E M Hutchinson's concise definition of adult education as being "Organized opportunities for men and women to enlarge and interpret their own living experiences in a changing society" (Payne, 1975, p.7).

Considering the needs of developing countries, it may be felt, however, that this definition which mainly stresses the interests of the individual, leaving those of the community untouched, has a too narrow perspective on the entire field of adult education. In this regard Payne stresses a wider view, linking adult education with community development by contending that "adult education is not just a 'craft' class, a discussion group, or learning a language", that is, it should not only promote a better living for the individual but for the whole community, bringing us "beyond individual needs to community relationships" (Payne, 1975, pp. 10, 8). The need for such a wider view with regard to the interests of both the individual and the community is satisfied in the following definition of the International Congress of University Adult Education: "Adult Education is a process whereby persons who no longer attend school on a regular and full-time basis (unless full-time programmes are especially designed for adults) undertake sequential and organized activities with the conscious intention of bringing about changes in information, knowledge, understanding or skills, appreciation and attitudes; or for the purpose of identifying and solving personal and community problems" (Lowe, 1970, p.3).

It should be noted that, by implication, all the definitions of adult education exclude post-school university, college and technical or vocational training, excluding full-time pre-professional or pre-service training but including in-service training for the adult population. In Chapter 1.1 it has been clearly intimated that this will also be our interpretation of the term.

2.2. HISTORY, SCOPE AND IMPACT OF ADULT EDUCATION

(a) Adult Education a world movement

Peers maintains that "The most active periods in the history of adult education have always been those in which there has been the greatest rapidity of change" (Peers, 1972, p.3). The world phenomenon of change being particularly characteristic of the twentieth century, the same author could point out that "the adult education movement" is today "rapidly becoming a world movement, stimulated at first by the example of Britain, but soon developing its own different forms, in the advanced democratic countries of the western world, in newly awakened nations of the Middle and Far East, and in still developing former colonial territories of Africa and the islands of the Caribbean and the Pacific" (Peers, 1972, p.249).

(b) Britain

The first adult schools in Britain were founded during the first half of the 18th century for a religious purpose, springing from the belief that the poor and ignorant must be taught to read in order to be able to read the Bible; the first liberal adult education movement for the working and middle class sections of the population, however, grew out of a demand for workers' education in association with the English universities (Peers, 1972, pp. 6, 9, 147). Of particular interest in this regard are the University Extension Movement and the Workers' Educational Association (W.E.A), both of which originated in England and were later transplanted to other countries. The English universities had offered extension lectures and some extramural services of a more academic nature for years, before special teaching services to workingmen were developed (Cramer and Browne, 1956, p. 565). The W.E.A. developed out of the University Extension Movement in 1903, functioning as an "overall instrument" for providing a liberal education for the working classes in a seemingly effective co-operative association with the universities, the organizational machinery being the Joint Committees with an equal number of members from the W.E.A. and the co-operating university respectively (Cramer and Browne, 1956, pp. 565, 554, 556; Kallen, 1962, p.9). However, although most of the students were workers in manual, clerical, or domestic occupations, the program did not make provision for vocational training which would have helped them in their daily work. There is ample provision for adult education in Britain today, comprising inter alia provision by Local Education Authorities and the Department of Education and Science (separately as well as jointly), trade unions, university extramural programs, Adult Education Centres, etc., but the overall position is laconically characterised as follows by Peers in terms of "The Changing Conception of the Need": "Adult education, designed originally to meet the needs of the educationally underprivileged, appealed more and more to the intelligent members of all the main sections of the community, except those in the lowest grades of labour who, in the remedial sense, needed it most" (Peers, 1972, pp. 147 - 148, 108 - 136).

(c) The Scandinavian countries

The adult education movements in Denmark, Norway and Sweden have exerted an important influence on the development of adult education in many other countries, the most notable influence being that of the Scandinavian Folk (People's) High School which is famous all over the world today. It is emphasized by Cramer and Browne that, "For over a century this program has been studied and discussed" and that "no treatment of adult education can overlook it" (Cramer and Browne, 1956, p.554).

The first People's High School as "conceived by N.F.S. Grundtvig, the great Danish patriot, Christian teacher and educational reformer" and "inspired by the need to awaken a peasant community to a new sense of responsible nationalism", was opened at Rödding in South Jutland, Denmark in 1844, and ever since, these schools "have played a leading part in raising this sturdy people to the high position in the world which they occupy today" (Peers, 1972, p. 257). Since 1844 these institutions have spread throughout Denmark, Norway, Sweden and Finland and inspired more or less similar developments in Germany. Having become an essential part of the educational system of these countries, there are hundreds of Folk High Schools in the Scandinavian countries today, all based on the Danish model, with slight local adaptations where necessary; all differing from the usual part-time pattern of adult education programs in their being resident, full-time and essentially non-vocational institutions, emphasising cultural training as their main task in accordance with Grundtvig's philosophy for his new school; and all being private institutions (municipalities, religious groups, etc.) but "generally supported by (their) governments, while preserving freedom of teaching and their essentially voluntary character" (Cramer and Browne, 1956, pp. 556 - 557; Peers, 1972, p. 257) All folk high schools are boarding schools for young men and women over 18 years of age and offer as a rule, longer residential courses of five months for young men in winter, and shorter three months' courses in summer for young women, but there are also shorter courses for older students when the longer courses are not in session. It should also be noted that all these schools have essentially preserved their freedom of teaching, have no set entrance requirements and no examinations.

(d) Federal Republic of Germany

Modern forms of adult education in Germany have their roots in the Scandinavian folk high schools and in the University Extension Movement in Britain. As in Britain, however, the more "popular" university courses intended for working adults, tended to be too academic in character and catered mainly for the middle class people but not for the real needs of the working classes.

The most characteristic form of the adult education movement in Germany is found in the so-called "Volkshochschul-Verband" consisting of a large number of "Volkshochschulen" (Volk High Schools) which provide adult education of a manifold nature in evening and weekend courses, and a smaller number of "Heimvolkschulen" which are residential colleges for adults, directly taken from the Danish model and mainly serving the rural-agricultural populations of the north by offering short residential courses especially to young men and women from the country.

The folk high school movement was started in Germany immediately after the First World War in 1919 in order to provide education to an impoverished nation; collapsed during the Nazi regime (after 1933); had an astonishing recovery after the Second World War, and differed from the Workers' Education in Britain in its lack of direct contact with the universities. Peers summarises the position as follows: "In the main, the leaders of the new movement had no time for the academic knowledge of the German universities ..... The University (Gelehrten-Hochschule) transforms life into science; the Volkschochschule attempts to re-transform science into life", one of the ideals of the movement being that of "Adult education for individual self-realization by making available to the people the knowledge which hitherto had been the monopoly of a superior class" (Peers, 1972, pp. 303 - 305). In a recent edition of the "Taschenbuch des Offentlichen Lebens" for the Federal Republic of Germany the viability of the "Volkschochschulen" in this country (population 62 million) is expressed in the following figures (1973): 1096 "Volkschochschulen" with 3599 branches and 3 202 115 registered students with an addition of 3 764 143 "visitors" attending special lectures, that is, about 7 million or approximately 12 per cent of the total adult population availed themselves of the facilities for adult education in these institutions in one year (Oeckle, 1976, p. 589). Most of the "Volkshochschulen" have no buildings of their own and have their classes scattered in school buildings, public libraries, etc., but they are for the most part organized as independent entities in the effective organization of the "Deutscher Volkschochschul-Verband e.V.", in most cases with substantial support from the "Land" government concerned and the local municipality (Oeckle, 1976, p. 589).

(e) The U.S.A. and Canada

Institutional programs for continuous education to adults in the United States of America already emerged during the first 40 years of the 19th century (Agyekum, 1973, p. 17) but became an important matter of public concern during the present century and were "usually sponsored by an institution of higher education or other non-profit agency or group for the benefit of those in the community", "organized on an informal or a formal basis" and "designed to help widen horizons of participants for avocational, cultural, vocational or professional purposes" (Unesco, 1971, p. 1308). Of particular interest in this regard are the University Extension Movement in the U.S.A. and the Antigonish Movement in Canada.

The first university lectures for adults (Cramer and Browne, 1956, pp. 228, 554) were offered by the University of Chicago as early as 1892 and other large universities followed the example, the pattern being largely based on British experience. However, the university extension movement in the United States, although owing the name and some inspiration to early British patterns, developed in its own way. From the outset, large numbers of people took advantage of the services of universities away from their campuses, including both vocational and liberal programs. Unlike British university extension services, American programs also served students who were interested in receiving university credit for the work done.

As for Canada a more detailed study of the development of co-operative techniques by the Antigonish Movement (the Saint Francis Xavier University in Nova Scotia) which "have done so much for formerly discouraged and economically hopeless people in the Maritimes", (Cramer and Browne, p. 564) will be more suitably placed in Part II Chapter 1 of this report.

(f) Scope, impact and stimulation

Kallen maintains that "The expression 'adult education' had entered the argot of pedagogy during World War I.

For some time before, men and women busy in earning their livings by day, had been attending public schools by night. These 'night schools' were simply day-schools in artificial light. Whatever the subject taught - mostly reading and writing - the teachers, the methods, the materials and the atmosphere prevailing were those of the day schools" (Kallen, 1962, p. 12). However, "Since 1960[1] the general status of adult education has been enhanced throughout the world. Within a number of Member States it has ceased to be a fringe concern and has tended to become a more or less integrated part of national systems of education. There are today few countries, if any, which do not attach importance to the need of adult education, not only for the sake of improving the quality of the life of the individuals but also, as part of a developmental process, for raising the national standards of living and contributing to community development" (Unesco, 1972, p.5 par. 14). To achieve these ideals, adult education is provided in the schools (evening classes), the universities, institutions specially created for the purpose, and in many other ways today (Unesco, 1971, p. 34).

Progress in the field of adult education has been stimulated during the past decade by the birth of several international and regional adult education associations such as the International Congress for University Adult Education, the International Committee on Correspondence Education and the African Adult Education Association, as well as by the formation of literacy committees and other measures to foster international co-operation such as the exchange of specialists and the support of such new professional journals as those of - inter alia - the African Adult Education Association (Unesco, 1972, p. 10; Lowe, 1970, p. 1). The amount of published material on the

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1) The Montreal World Conference on Adult Education

theory and practice of adult education has also suddenly begun to accumulate, especially in North America (Lowe, 1970, p. 1). Moreover, many adult educationists are devoted to the ideal of developing adult education as a separate discipline and the volume of research work into their field of study has sharply risen year after year, accentuating the need for both teachers and administrators to be acquainted with the latest innovations in teaching techniques; the use of the multimedia systems by means of which they can now deal with vast numbers of adults with maximum efficiency and at minimum cost; "the recent findings of psychologists about how adults learn and the dynamics of group interaction", as well as with "Recently inaugurated institutions like the Open University in the United Kingdom, the University of the Air in Japan .... and Tevec in Canada" (Unesco, 1972, pp. 9 - 10, par. 27 - 28).

(g) Dr. Laubach's world literacy "crusades"

No reported history of adult education can be complete without reference to this missionary's literacy "crusades" in the field of adult education. For "crusades" they were indeed: the title of Laubach's "Forty Years with the Silent Billion" (1970) already tells part of the story, and merely a quick glance at the Contents of this work of 500 pages (Cf. Annexure C) will bear testimony to the truth of the above statement. In his introductory chapter he writes: "The illiterate majority of the human race does not know how to make its cry reach us, and we never dream how these millions suffer ..... The most bruised people on this planet, the naked, the hungry, ... the sick, the imprisoned in mind and soul, are the 1 200 million illiterates, three-fifths of the human race. At least a billion are virtual slaves" (Laubach, 1970, p. 13).

In chapter 4 and in Part II we shall deal with different aspects of Dr Laubach's literacy campaigns. For this historical resumé the following should be particularly noted (Cf. Laubach, 1970, pp. 474, 8, 478; Annexure C):After he had begun his literacy work on the island of Mindanao in the Philippines in 1930, Dr Laubach travelled to 105 countries, developing - in 40 years - literacy primers and supplementary readers with his literacy teams in 313 languages, many of which had no written alphabet previously, and became the founder of the "each one teach one method of instruction" by making his "simple system of phonetic charts - a picture-language method - through which (sometimes in as little as three or four days!)" the illiterates "have entered the rich world of previously forbidden letters and books", ... "so easy to teach that each one can teach one just by following the line, not talking too much and letting the book do most of the teaching". His literacy tours include, inter alia, at least 8 visits to Africa (1937, 1947, 1948, 1950, 1951, 1955, 1956 etc.) and several tours around the world.

As for the 105 countries in which Dr. Laubach and his literacy teams "started literacy fires", he reports that "in most cases (we) stayed with them until we thought the fires would continue burning without us" (Laubach, 1970, p. 466) and then moved on to start new literacy fires. For this work he is reported by Congressman James Hanley to be "credited with teaching 60 to 100 million people to read" (Cf. Laubach, 1970, p. 478). This claim also includes the many African countries that had been included in Laubach's African missions between 1937 and 1956.

2.3. HISTORICAL ASPECTS OF ADULT EDUCATION IN AFRICA

(a) Pioneer work of the missionaries

It will be obvious from the above section of this chapter that non-governmental agencies such as the churches, the universities as well as industrial and other private concerns played an important role in early adult education work. Particularly the missionaries of all Christian denominations were pioneers in this field all over the African continent, the motivation being that illiterate adults must be taught to read in order to be able to read the Bible, and it should be emphasized here that church-based literacy programs still continue to play an important part in spreading the Christian doctrine, especially in vernacular languages (Bowers, 1976, p.33).

(b) University-based liberal adult education programs after the Second World War (Jones-Quartey, 1970, pp. 19 - 20; Agyekum, 1973, pp. 55 - 60).

At the end of the Second World War the influence of returning soldiers was an important factor in bringing a university-based type of adult education to West Africa and from there to other African countries. By virtue of their experience of life and work standards in other countries, the returning African veterans of the war from the former British West African colonies Nigeria, the Gold Coast (now Ghana), Sierra Leone, Gambia, and even from Liberia and some of the French territories of West and Equatorial Africa like Senegal and Chad, demanded an upward change in their own standard of life and work in their respective countries, resulting in the appointment of the Elliot commission by the colonial office in London (1945) to investigate the need for continuing education in West Africa, and ultimately in the establishment of a University College in the Gold Coast and Nigeria in 1947 and the beginning of a university-based adult education movement in each country. Although the development of adult education came later in Sierra Leone and in the other British and French colonies of West Africa, it was in principle the same as in the Gold Coast (Ghana) and Nigeria: there were no signs of a mass adult education movement as yet; on the contrary, this first period "reflected an elitist philosophy" of adult education, and only 11 years ago (in 1967, i.e. 20 years after the establishment of the first University College) it was still observed that the African universities "tend to follow the British pattern and objectives in their extra-mural programs", with their sole emphasis on a liberal adult education and making no provision for vocational programs.

Of particular interest in the above regard was the partnership between the People's Educational Association (P.E.A) and the Extra-Mural Studies Department of the Ghana Institute of Adult Education in operating programs for adult education. Jones-Quartey reports as follows on this partnership since the late forties (Jones-Quartey, 1970, pp. 27 - 28): "The aim of the Ghana Institute of Adult Education was to provide a university-based system of adult education for thousands of young men and women whose need for continuing education had been recognized and established. The Institute has done its work most of the time through a programme of extra-mural classes, residential courses, one-day schools, week-end schools and conferences, lecture series and occasional lectures. These are all based on liberal studies in history, economics, geography, politics, English language and literature, French - almost the whole range of liberal academic subjects". On the other hand, however, the members of the People's Educational Organization - "a voluntary organization, established in 1949, almost simultaneously with the Institute" - were responsible for forming the classes for which the Institute supplied the tutors and organized the teaching.

(c) The shift of emphasis to mass adult education

The following should be specially noted in the process of development.

(i) World and regional conferences on adult education

The shift of emphasis to mass adult education was particularly heralded by the World Conference on Adult Education held in Montreal in 1960, followed by a series of World and Regional Conferences sponsored and convened by Unesco of which the following in the early sixties are the most important for the purpose of this study:

- The Addis Ababa Conference of African States on Development of Education in Africa, 1961;
- The Paris Conference of Ministers of Education in Africa, 1962;
- The World Conference on Literacy and Society, Rome 1962;
- The Regional Conference on the Planning and Organization of Literacy Programs, Abidjan 1964;
- The World Conference of Ministers of Education on the Eradication of Illiteracy, Teheran 1965.

More recent conferences of special importance to which we shall often refer in this report are:

- The International Symposium for Literacy in Persepolis, Iran, September 1975;
- The Conference of Ministers of Education of African Member States, Lagos, January to February 1976;
- The Dar-es-Salaam Conference on Adult Education and Development, June 1976.

At this stage we have to pay more attention to the first and the last on the above list after the Montreal Conference.

(ii) The Addis Ababa Conference of 1961 and targets for eradicating adult illiteracy at primary school level (Greenough, 1966, p. 14; Röhrs, 1971, p. 34).

The Addis Ababa Conference which lasted 10 days in May 1961 and was attended by representatives of 34 African countries, observers from 24 other countries and 10 U.N. agencies, supplied the blueprint for future educational development in Africa. When the conference was held, only 16 per cent of all school-age children for primary and secondary schools were attending school, and targets for long- and short-range educational action for eradicating adult illiteracy at school-age level were set at the conference of which the following long-range action targets are the most notable:

- Universal primary education on the African continent, 1980;
- 20 per cent of all primary school leavers enrolled at secondary schools in 1980;
- A university enrolment of some 300 000 (In 1961 there were only 31 000 university students from Africa: 18 000 in Africa and 13 000 abroad).

(iii) The Dar-es-Salaam Conference and the proclamation of a mass-based and community-based adult education policy, June 1976

About 500 participants from 80 countries attended this meeting in the Tanzanian capital and adopted a Program of Action, comprising inter alia the following adult education strategy for the coming years (Cf. Adult education and development, March 1977, p.12)[1)]

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1) Underlining done for emphasis by JJF

- "Development and Adult Education strategies must address themselves to eradication of mass poverty which means that they must be mass-based, involving mass participation and mass orientation";
- "All Adult Education institutions should be community-based and their education should be development education";
- "Adult literacy programmes must be a functional force and must create motivation and structure for changing rural and urban society";
- "Adult Education must be a force for endogenous development and for this it must promote, conserve and use local culture as the content and curricula of all adult education programmes";
- "All Adult Education should use the multi-media network and particularly the Radio".

The answer to the question in how far and with what degree of success this strategy is carried out in Africa today will, however, call for a full analysis of the overall African situation in the following chapters of this report.

2.4. ADULT EDUCATION IN DEVELOPED AND UNDERDEVELOPED COUNTRIES

A comparison of the need, scope and impact of adult education in the more developed and underdeveloped countries of the world is necessary at this stage with a view to stating the case for the challenge of a new world order in the next section of this chapter.

Peers points out that the developed countries think of adult education in terms of further or advanced education "for people who possess at least the elementary skills necessary for continued learning in adult life" representing only a small minority of the total population of the world, whereas things are entirely different in many of the so-called developing countries where adult education may even be "a major concern of public policy and may even assume the proportions of a mass movement", the reason being that there are still "hundreds of millions of men and women in economically and politically backward countries for whom the written or printed word is meaningless and who lack the most elementary knowledge of the world in which they live and of the conditions necessary to enable them to live decently in it" (Cf. Peers, 1972, p.322; Lowe, 1970, p.1). This situation still exists in many countries of South America, the island and former colonies of the Atlantic and the Pacific, in many parts of Asia and the Middle East, to a lesser degree even in some countries of South-east Europe, and "in the whole of Africa except for the small enclaves of white occupation" (Peers, 1972, p. 322) Peers has a very strong view on this state of affairs calling for imperative measures to remedy the situation: "It may well be that, in an age which is rapidly passing, when communities lived in isolation, their lives regulated by age-long customs under relatively stable conditions, mass education in the modern sense was not necessary. But isolation is no longer possible and, in the midst of rapid change, mass ignorance in any country is a menace, not only to the country concerned, but also to the world at large. And ..... to talk of progress towards democracy in these countries, as we are in the habit of doing, is merely pious nonsense so long as these conditions prevail" (Peers, 1972, p. 322).

2.5. ADULT EDUCATION AND THE CHALLENGE OF A NEW WORLD ORDER

(a) Adult Education and the world phenomenon of change

In Chapter 1 and the preceding sections of this chapter a great deal has already been said, either by definition or by direct statement or implication, with regard to adult education as a pressing need of the modern world. It would have been particularly clear from the last paragraph of the previous section that the old world order has rapidly changed during the past decades of the present century, and that we have moved with these changes into a modern era of rapidly changing technology and socio-political structures in which there seems to be neither any place left for primitive societies, living in isolation, nor for self-complacent attitudes regarding previously acquired knowledge and skills. It is no sheer coincidence that the greatest activity in the field of adult education was found to be historically linked with the periods of the greatest rapidity of change:[1] already by definition in the first section of this chapter, the emphasis was laid on the continuous and changing needs of adults involved in an "evolving, developmental" world order, necessitating changes in knowledge and skills, in perspectives and understanding, attitudes and behaviour in order to keep oneself abreast of the times and to enlarge and interpret one's own living experiences in a rapidly changing society. The world phenomenon of constant and rapid change has made it imperative to accept the challenge for a continuing education (further education, training, retraining, etc.) of adults, and those who cannot keep pace in understanding will soon be in the way and more than often a burden to others who will have to feed them and/or foot their national bills.

(b) Adult Education for knowledge, understanding and development

Bender and McCormack discuss i.a. the following "societal factors affecting adult education": the generation of new knowledge; social change (e.g. shift of population from a rural to an urban setting); specialization and increased educational level (Bender, 1972, pp. 3 - 6). The Botswana National Commission on Education, however, goes further in formulating the demand for new knowledge in terms of the phenomenon of change: "Changes in agricultural practice, improvements in the public health system, village development and rural development generally ..... depend on a wide diffusion of new knowledge, skills and attitudes. Moreover, the rural people of Botswana will need education if they are to benefit fully from these changes. The question facing Botswana in out-of-school education is, therefore, how best to manage its resources in order to help its adult people cope with a changing society and economy" (Botswana Report, 1977, p. 163 par. 7.03). The Commission also maintains that, whereas the role of "out-of-school" education is potentially important in any country, this is particularly the case in Botswana: first, because a large percentage of the adult population has received no formal schooling, especially in the sparsely populated areas; second, because the limited resources of the country at large and of its individuals as such make a massive expansion of full-time schooling at secondary and post-secondary levels impossible, leaving the country badly in need of skilled manpower for purposes of development (Botswana Report, 1977, par. 7.01). In perusing Greenholm's formulation of adult education as "a key development tool" for transforming society, it would be worth while coming back to previous statements that all adult education must be regarded as development education for individual as well as community development, an important aim being the eradication of mass poverty by means of mass-based, community-based adult education programs, particularly in view of the fact that all the African countries in this study (a total of 44) were found to be in a state of underdevelopment (Greenholm, 1975, p.2; Cf. Chapter 2.1, 2.3, and 1.2).

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[1] Chapter 2.2 (a)

Coverdale summarises the vital role of adult education in relation to rural development as follows: "Adult education and training are vital elements in any programme of rural development. Some educational planners would go so far as to suggest that where a developing country is operating on a stringent budget, there may be virtue in slowing down the expansion of first-level education, at least temporarily, and concentrating the maximum of energy and resources on providing agricultural education for the adult population.....It must be acknowledged that literacy is needed for acquiring higher skills in all occupations, and that agriculture is certainly no exception" (Coverdale, 1974, p. 30). Agyekum quotes Coles that "It is not the children of today who hold the present destiny of Africa in their hands, it is the adults. So it is only by establishing effective communication with the adult population by helping them to adjust to a rapidly changing world that an immediate impact can be made on the urgent problem of society and essential progress be brought about. Africa cannot wait a generation to mobilize its rich human (and natural - J F) resources for tasks of national development" (Agyekum, 1973, p.116). It is true indeed that the training of adults who are already on the job, is a much quicker way to increase the productivity in less-developed countries than to wait more than 10 years for the potential contribution of school education (Agyekum, 1973, p.12). This point of view is also clearly stated in Nyerere's paper, "Education for Self-Reliance" (1967): that, since nearly half of the Tanzanian people are adults and nearly 90 per cent of them illiterate, it has been the Tanzanian slogan since independence first to educate the adults and to spend a large part of the educational resources on them (Cf. Hall and Dodds, 1974, pp. 7 - 8).

(c) Adult Education and the practical needs of life for better living

An investigation conducted by Tough for the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education (Tough, 1968, pp. 52 - 53) found that the single most important reason for adult learning is the desire to use new knowledge and skills acquired. Tough also quotes findings by other investigators to prove the overwhelming importance of adult learning for using such knowledge and skills, inter alia the findings of Stone and Rivera after an intensive national survey in the United States, that "the major emphasis in adult learning is on the practical rather than the academic; on the applied rather than the theoretical", on "subject matter directly useful in the performance of everyday tasks and objectives", and states that the same emphasis on the personal, practical needs of everyday life was found in a study by Robinson in the United Kingdom, clearly proving that the great majority of adult interests does not primarily arise from some intellectual or academic curiosity, and that University extramural programs provide knowledge which is not relevant to the interests of most adult people. It is clear from all these studies that most adults desiring further education are in need of practical knowledge that can help them in their daily lives, for example in solving personal or community problems, aspiring to positions requiring higher qualifications, improving their living conditions for better living, and generally raising the standards of their life and work.

Where Peers has found that there are still hundreds of millions of people in backward countries who lack the most elementary knowledge of the world in which they live and of the conditions necessary to live decently in it,[1] an interesting project in Rhodesia relating basic literacy teaching to the practice of improved farming methods and to the running of savings clubs, and aimed at raising the standard of living of participants "from subsistence level to entry into the cash economy" over a period of five years, proved the "success story" that these backward conditions can be remedied where there is the will to do so as well as the qualities of intellect and mind to launch such a scheme successfully (Pirie, 1976, pp. 33 - 34).

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[1] Cf. Chapter 2.4

It was this determination to improve the living conditions of his people which we find in Julius Nyerere's radio speech in which he declared the year 1970 as Adult Education Year for the Tanzanian people: "We must become aware of the things we, as members of the human race, can do for ourselves and our country. We must learn to realise that we do not have to live miserably in hovels, or cultivate with bad jembes, or suffer from many diseases; we must learn that we ourselves can change these things. The first job of adult education will be to make us reject bad houses, bad jembes, and preventable diseases; it will make us recognise that we ourselves have the ability to obtain better houses, better tools, and better health ....; the second objective of adult education is learning how to improve our lives ..... Every one of us, through improving his own education, can begin to make improvements in his own life - and therefore in the lives of all" (Edström, 1976, pp. 9 - 10).

(d) Adult Education for liberation, self-realization and self-reliance

The above quotation from Nyerere's radio speech must also be interpreted as a strong plea for his practical philosophy of "Education for Self-Reliance" and for the liberation of his people from their spiritual and economic distress; for these are the people whom Laubach had in mind in referring to the illiterates as the "imprisoned in mind and soul".1) Niggermann sees an adult education activity as an act of emancipation, emphasising "the emancipatory onset of further education" ("der emanzipatorische Ansatz der Weiterbildung") and the act of self-realization by means of adult education (Niggermann, 1976, p. vii).

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1) Chapter 2.2 (g)

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For a return to Nyerere's practical philosophy of liberation, we could recall his talk given at the International Conference on Adult Education at Dar-es-Salaam in June 1976 in which he emphasized that the purpose of education is "the liberation of Man from the restraints and limitations of ignorance and dependency"; for "Education has to increase men's physical and mental freedom - to increase their control over themselves, their own lives and the environment in which they live. The ideas ..... released in the mind through education, should therefore be liberating ideas; the skills acquired by education should be liberating skills. This means that adult education has to be directed at helping men to help themselves ..... The first function of adult education is to inspire both a desire to change, and an understanding that change is possible ..... Men living in poverty or sickness or under tyranny or exploitation must be enabled to recognize both that the life they lead, is miserable, and that they can change it by their own action" (Bataille, 1976, p. vii). In Nyerere's "Education for Self-Reliance" (1967) he advocates, i.a., "A total reorientation of the schools, both primary and secondary, in order to transform them into productive communities'", whereas in the field of adult education in Tanzania "One of the major purposes of the national functional literacy campaign and the 1973 health education campaign was the raising of the people's consciousness about what they themselves could do to improve their own situation either as individuals or preferably in groups" (Hall, 1974, pp. 47, 184).

(e) Adult Education and the war against illiteracy

In view of the fact that there are still more than 800 million illiterates in the world[1] to whom the written or printed word is meaningless and who cannot even read the Bible as a necessary support for leading moral and happy lives, or find their way about in many of the practical needs of life such as "being warned of danger, ... keeping posted on current happenings, keeping in touch with one's family" (Agyekum, 1973, p.31), etc. by means of the written word - the people in bondage who are sorely in need of "Adult Education for liberation ....." - ample provision for adult education is a necessity for the war against illiteracy. This aspect of adult education will, however, be discussed in detail in the next chapter under the heading: "The either-or imperative with regard to the eradication of illiteracy ....."

(f) Adult Education for political responsibility and the ideals of democracy

Sir John Maud pointed out that, since the French Revolution in Europe at the end of the eighteenth century and the passing of Reform Bills which extended the franchise wider than it had even been before, there had been a tendency to move power from the few to the many, and that it was Tom, Dick and Harry today who carry the responsibility at the election polls in the democratic countries of the West for deciding what their countries shall do, necessitating more education for Tom, Dick and Harry in order to be able to carry this responsibility in a responsible manner (Maud, 1960, pp. 7 - 12). As far as the underdeveloped countries of the world - and those of Africa in particular - are concerned, however, the clue to the problem of political responsibility and the ideals of democracy is to be found in the last sentence of the previous section of this chapter: that it is "merely pious nonsense" to talk of progress towards democracy in

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1) Cf. Chapter 3

countries where conditions of mass ignorance still prevail. Indeed, the world is divided into two groups today, one of educationally advanced and economically powerful countries, and the other of impoverished and dependent illiterates (Rahnema, 1976, p. 179), and it remains to be seen whether the educationally underdeveloped countries of Africa will be ripe for the political responsibility of a democracy within the next decades. Experience with the African states since Independence has proved to the contrary. It is therefore necessary to note the philosophical issue that "A broad, continuous and appropriate program of adult education for everybody is a necessary component of democracy" (Cf. Bergevin, 1967, pp. 161 - 162).

(g) Adult Education for leisure activities and the enjoyment of the cultural heritage

Education does not proceed in a vacuum, but is always relative to its cultural environment that determines its character (Kandel, 1961, p. 46). Knowledge and learning is part of the cultural heritage of a civilised world, and with science and knowledge being on the move in a new world of new discoveries and inventions every day, calling for new adjustments in all spheres of life, it has become part of the challenge of a new world order that the learning needs of adults have become continuous to give them power of understanding of their world and full enjoyment of their culture. Moreover, increased production and shorter working hours resulting from the progress of technology and the mechanization of labour have given most people more time for leisure activities, including the enjoyment of their cultural heritage such as the achievements of the arts and sciences, the incidents of history and the company of books that "give us power to call up the thoughts of the greatest and wisest men that ever lived and ...... support us under solitude from Being a burden to ourselves" (Fourie, 1973, p. 172), and it is the task of both formal and non-formal education to meet the needs of youth and adults in preparing them for the proper use of their leisure time.

(h) Adult Education and expanding horizons

It is part of the adult education picture that "the increase of population, the speed of technical progress and the spread of democratic participation in government are making it imperative that special attention now be given to the social, vocational and civic education of large sections of the adult population"; it is equally important for the completion of the task, "To help the learner achieve a degree of happiness and meaning in life" and "To provide conditions and opportunities to help the adult advance in maturation, spiritually, culturally, physically, politically and vocationally" (Unesco, 1971, p. 34; Agyekum, 1973, p. 14). The implication is clear: according to an explanation in a Unesco Review of Education, "Lifelong education is more than merely further training. It forms part of a design for cultural development which should not be subordinanted to industrial development but should encompass the whole man" (Unesco, 1976c, p. 6). In this context of "the whole man" the phenomenon of expanding horizons is to be seen as a projection of all the preceding sub-headings of this section, summarising all the functions of adult education. It is true that we human beings are born with powers of intellect and mind inherent in us, but that it is only by education that these powers can be fully brought to bear upon us to influence our lives, widening the horizons and opening up new windows in the soul. The need for continually expanding the horizons applies to young and old alike, particularly so in the midst of rapid change in a new world. With the speed of discovery having immensely increased in recent years, the world has become a smaller place in which no form of isolation is possible today. Moreover, in the phrasing of John Maud's metaphor, "It is as though scientists were working in a huge forest of ignorance making an ever larger circular clearing within which things are clear, but as the circle becomes larger and larger the circumference of our contact with ignorance becomes longer and longer" (Maud, 1960, pp. 2 - 4). This challenge for combating ignorance and expanding the horizons also came to the newly independent states of Africa, for "what one hopes is that the newly independent countries will, in due course, stop being so much concerned with the glory of having cut the apron strings that previcusly connected them with the mother country, and stand on their own feet and find the real glories of being free while becoming independent. Surely, ... they won't proceed to the status of adult neighbour unless they become educated ....." (Maud, 1960, p.13).

2.6. FINAL VIEWS ON THE MEANING, NATURE AND INTERPRETATIONS OF THE TERM "ADULT EDUCATION"

On being convinced of the importance of accepting the challenge for adult education in the remaining part of the present century, there still remains the task of final interpretations.

(a) Adult Education as non-formal versus formal education

It would have been noted that the preliminary definitions of adult education in the first section of this chapter have all pointed towards organized educational activities for adults. On the strength of the foregoing discussions, however, this rather narrow interpretation will now have to be finally supplemented. In view of the fact that adult education can be, according to Paul Bergevin's phraseology, either "Systematically Organised Programs" or "Random Experimental Learning" (Bergevin, 1967, p. 163), we need at this stage, as a matter of primary concern, a clarification of the terms formal, non-formal and informal education.

Formal education may be defined as "the hierarchically structured, chronologically graded" full-time educational system, running from the primary school through the university and including, in addition to general academic studies, also "a variety of specialized programmes and institutions for full-time technical and professional training" (Cf. Botswana Report, 1977, p. 164; Peyper, 1978, p.2).

Non-formal education, on the other hand, refers to any organized or semi-organized educational activity outside the established structure of the formal system and is "aimed at serving a great variety of learning needs of different groups in the population, both young and old", relating i.a. to health, nutrition, agriculture, arts and crafts, out-of-school vocational training, family planning, etc. and "aimed at benefitting particular groups of the local population such as farmers, craftsmen and entrepreneurs; also unemployed out-of-school youth" (Botswana Report, 1977, p.164; Peyper, 1978, pp. 2, 3, 5).

Sheffield reports that the interest in non-formal education has increased in Africa today, many African governments and aid agencies being desirous of exploring alternative measures for upgrading the productivity and skills of the majority of their populations that enjoyed very little or no formal schooling, and primarily regards these non-formal adult education programs either as an alternative to no formal schooling or an extension of the formal schooling for those who are in need of being upgraded for more productive employment by means of additional (on-the-job) training (Sheffield and Diejomaoh, 1972, p. xi). Non-formal education being less expensive per trainee than formal education, there seems to be merit in Kenneth King's strong plea for innovation in the form of a "movement from traditional schools ..... towards non-formal community training centres" for developing countries with limited resources: that is, a "movement from schools towards communities" ..... "from academic subjects to development areas, from single-use buildings to shared use", from full-time to part-time education, etc. (King, 1976, p. 13 par. 37). This training may be of a vocational nature for job improvement, but it may also have a political, spiritual or cultural bias, focussing on the national, spiritual and cultural awakening of the population at large (Sheffield and Diejomaoh, 1972, p. 199).

(b) Adult Education as informal education

Whereas both formal and non-formal education refer to systematically organized educational activities, there is also a form of unorganized and incidental educational experience, generally termed informal education, which is a lifelong process, proverbially from the cradle to the grave, and as such also a very important kind of adult education. According to Bergevin, "Television, newspapers, conversations, reading, entertainment - everything we do has some effect on us, whether we are aware of it or not, and therefore can be considered a kind of adult education" (Bergevin, 1967, p. 163).

Informal education may therefore be defined as the lifelong process of incidentally acquiring knowledge and skills as well as attitudes and values from one's daily experience and the educational influences and resources in one's environment, whether these be an entertainment or the mass media, reading or the library, a meeting or any other group or individual experience (Botswana Report, 1976, p. 164; Peyper, 1978, p. 2) Whereas non-formal education may be discontinuously supplied for serving specific learning needs, informal education is always a lifelong and continuous process of incidental educational experience.

(c) Adult Education in the context of lifelong education

In section 1 of this chapter it was stated that the learning needs of adults are continuous in the evolving and developmental order of society in which all adults are involved. As such, learning and understanding acquired in a lifelong process, is sometimes deemed to be of even greater importance that that transmitted in our schools (Cf. Sheffield and Diejomaoh, 1972, p ix). Payne maintains that "The concept of life-long education as a broadening of adult education is a necessary view if education is to be really regarded as continuous through life", the purpose of adult education being not merely "to put meaning into life", but being more accurately defined as "beginning where vocational education leaves off" (Payne, 1975, p. 8).

Some Unesco clarifications are important to note at this stage (Unesco, 1972, pp. 5 - 7; Cf. Domenach, 1976, p. 17)[1] In view of the fact that it is difficult to separate the impact of the formal school system from family, community and cultural life and institutions, "the broadening of access to education does not mean simply providing side by side with the existing school system educational facilities for adults who have had no schooling; it means devising a new structure that will do away with the frontiers separating formal education from informal education. It means recognizing the need for a life-long education that will teach people how to learn and make it possible for them to supplement and renew their store of knowledge throughout the course of their life. In this context, adult education - for so long at a disadvantage in the matter of budgetary appropriations - must no longer be treated as a temporary expedient aimed at redressing the shortcomings of traditional school education. Designed to provide a means of adjustment to life, it supplements formal education, making it possible to lighten school curricula and contributing to the reform of the methods used in schools". For indeed, "The fact of considering education as a continuous activity clearly entails far-reaching consequences", requiring "a rethinking of the function of school and university in their traditional forms", for by doing away with the argument that the adolescent is handed over to society as a "finished product", part of the burden of the formal education system may be transferred to lifelong education, "freeing the earlier stages of education from certain constraints which continue to weigh on its existence", and the task of "learning to learn" which will be resumed after the preparatory stage of school education, will become a reality. To conclude these Unesco statements: "It follows that adult education must cease to be peripheral ..... that the whole idea of 'catching up' by late starters ..... must be discarded, and that the education of children and young people and adult education are linked together in a continuous relationship. It is indeed obvious that adult education, if it is to be vital and vigorous, must entail a radical transformation of schools and universities".

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[1] Underlining done for emphasis by JJP

(d) Adult Education as out-of-school education (Botswana Report, 1977, pp. 164 - 165).

It is interesting to note that the Botswana National Commission on Education, recognizing the more restrictive nature of non-formal education as being confined to organized educational activities only, prefers to use the term "out-of-school" education to include both non-formal education such as extension programs for improved methods of agriculture, vocational training on the job, courses through correspondence or part-time study, etc., and informal learning facilities such as clubs and libraries. The Commission is also of the opinion that "An overall system of out-of-school education should include such provisions as incentives to industry to train employees on the job; an entitlement in the terms of service of civil service and other workers to release for so many hours each week to undertake part-time study; and a mobile library service in rural areas".

(e) Convergences: adult learning and adult education

It might have appeared that the terms "adult learning" and "adult education" have been used synonymously in the preceding paragraphs, calling for a clarification of the terms at this stage. Alan Thomas explains that "while any 'educational' enterprise to be worthy of the name must engender or at least direct 'learning", it should likewise be noted "..... that learning in any society always outdistances education, and that ..... education is always accomodating itself to what is already being learned outside" (Thomas, 1970, pp. 230, 232) This explanation illustrates the importance of learning in the task of education, although the author also intimates that it still leaves us with the problem of assessing just how much is being done for adult education in Africa; for, like Western societies, most African countries are still in the habit of supporting a great deal of organized adult learning designated as community development, police training, management development etc., which is not identified as adult education. Thomas concludes that "The administrative problem of locating adult education if only by defining it properly, seems the same in African countries as in the West" (Thomas, 1970, p. 232).

2.7. SHORTCOMINGS AND OBSTACLES THAT HAVE HINDERED THE DEVELOPMENT OF ADULT EDUCATION

In spite of "problems" with regard to the subtleties of definition, there could, by now, be no uncertainty about the real meaning of the term "adult education", even if it be known by different names. It is equally clear that there are many obstacles that have hindered the full development of adult education. Unesco reports inter alia the following that have been "noted with regret" (Unesco, 1972, pp. 11 - 13, par. 34 - 39):[1]

- "that the efforts of numerous governments to encourage the education of children and young people have resulted in adult education being treated as a 'poor relation";

  (there happens to be an "all too frequent lack of policy and of laws or regulations requiring the authorities ..... to provide for adult education");

- "that, in spite of progress achieved, adult education is still peripheral and discontinuous";

  (there is still "the general tendency to plan and organize adult education activities in a discontinuous and fragmentary manner");

- "that there is frequently a lack of continuity and liaison between formal education and adult education"; moreover, "the fact that general acceptance of the concept of life-long education has not resulted in substantial reforms of formal education, has hindered the development of adult education and its incorporation in a global educational system" ;

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[1] Re-arranged

- the development of adult education has been hindered by "the inadequacy of opportunities for training adult educators, particularly in the use of the various modern educational media and methods";
- "despite significant advances in respect of literacy work which are reflected in a lower rate of illiteracy, the absolute number of illiterates has continued to increase because of population growth";
- "More especially in the countries of the Third World, it is generally evident that the educational systems based on foreign models inherited from the colonial past are not adapted to local conditions ..... and are intended for only a minority of the population".

These are some of the many items on the Unesco "obstacle list", of which the last-mentioned in the above selection will be more clearly illustrated by coming back, once again, to the Zambian document, Education for Development - Draft Statement on Educational Reform (by the Ministry of Education, Republic of Zambia) which was also brought into focus - although from a different angle - in the concluding paragraphs of the previous chapter. Some extracts of this highly praised document[1] were reprinted on the front cover of the periodical Adult Education and Development Half-yearly Journal for Adult Education in Africa, Asia and Latin America (March 1977, no. 8) under the heading "The Need for Change", of which the following will also reflect the position in respect of adult education and the problem of illiteracy:

- "The present education system has been likened to a train which travels on a single tract bound for one destination, but which ejects most of its passengers, without stopping, at several points during the route";
- In other words, the system favours a small minority who are believed to be the most able academically, at the expense of the vast majority of others. By doing so, it promotes "a spirit of selfish competition rather than co-operation" and "breeds individualism, elitism and class consciousness .....";
- "These ..... main criticisms which the society levels against our education system ..... can be summed up as: rejection of the majority, rewards for the few";

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1) Cf. Chapter 1.6 (a)

- However, in making these criticisms, "society is criticising itself", for "Zambian society gives respect, status, prestige and wealth to those who achieve the highest levels of education ..... But society has not yet succeeded in creating a dynamic social structure and economic organisation in rural and urban Zambia which would enable every school-leaver to be employed in socially constructive and productive work".

CHAPTER 3

A DIAGNOSIS OF THE PROBLEM OF ILLITERACY AND ITS CAUSES AND CURE, WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO AFRICA

3.1. ILLITERACY IN THE WORLD: SOME FIGURES AND FACTS

(a) What has been said in Chapter 1.2. regarding the problems of statistical data on adult education particularly applies to the problem of calculating the number of illiterates in the world, for according to the Executive Secretary of the International Co-ordination Secretariat for Literacy, Paris, these problems arise not only from the fact that the figures are often unreliable and mostly either unobtainable or incomplete in countries with a high illiteracy rate, but also that they are often incomparable because illiteracy is defined differently in different places (Unesco Secretariat, 1976, p. 3). However, general Unesco estimates from figures available at the beginning of the last quarter of the present century show that "the world is still far from reaching universal literacy" (Unesco Secretariat, 1976a, p. 3; Unesco 1976c, p. 64). In September 1975 the Director-General of Unesco pointed out that, in spite of a decrease in the overall illiteracy rate, the absolute number of illiterates had increased to some 800 million (60 per cent women), totalling about one-third of the adult world population, while about half the adult population (15+ years) in poorer countries were illiterate - that is, "cut off from direct access to the sources of knowledge and denied the possibility of exercising certain of their rights to the full, for which, in modern societies, a minimum instruction is required" (Unesco, 1976a, Annexure III p. 1).

P C Muncie, in searching for "Torches in the Night" on behalf of the World Bank Group some five years ago, stressed i.a. the following main points regarding "the continued widening of the gap between industrialized and developing countries" between 1950 and 1970 (Muncie, 1973, p. 5)[1],and statistical evidence will be submitted in this chapter which will prove that these trends have not changed much in the present decade:

(i) School attendance increased at the same rate as the population in Europe, North America and the USSR; in developing countries, however, the population of school-age children (5 - 19 years) increased by approximately 4½ million more than enrolment per year.

(ii) Ninety per cent of the money spent on education, was spent in Europe, USSR and North America which contain only one-third of the total world population and one-quarter of the world's school-age population.

(iii) The number of school children in the developing world exceeded that of the developed world by 65 million, but the number of school teachers was the same.

(iv) As much as 40 per cent of the budgets for education in poorer countries were spent on children who leave school after three years or less of instruction.

(v) The number of illiterates over 15 years of age increased by 50 million in the world between 1960 and 1970.

(b) Comparative figures for the percentage of adult illiteracy (15+ years) in the different regions of the world clearly show : first, that although the percentages are steadily decreasing, progress in eradicating illiteracy in the world is still very slow; second, that there is a distressingly dark shadow over the African continent in comparison with the rest of the world. Only eight years ago (in 1970) the illiteracy rate of the adult populations of Africa and the Arab States was still over 70% (73,7%), followed by Asia (including the highly illiterate Arab States of Asia) with 46,8% and Latin America (South and Central America, Mexico and the Caribbean) with 23,6%. The figures for the other regions were: Oceania, i.e. Australia, New Zealand and surrounding islands - 10,3%; Europe including the USSR - 3,6%; Northern America - 1,5% (Unesco Secretariat, 1976 a, p. 4). Although rapid progress in conquering illiteracy has been reported for some South American countries like Chile and Argentina, it is also to be noted that six years ago, the literacy rate of countries like Brazil, Colombia, Honduras and Mexico was reported to be only about 50%, and about 60% in Jamaica (Peers, 1972, p. 324). Drawing closer to the present situation (which, for obvious reasons, cannot be on record as yet), a Unesco "Review of Education" reported only two years ago that the illiteracy rate of the people of the Third World was still over 60 per cent (Adiseshiha, 1976, p. 84) and it should be clear from the above figures and particularly from the detailed analysis for the different African countries under item 3 of Annexure A, that the high adult illiteracy rate of the African continent was mainly responsible for this figure.

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[1] Re-arranged

3.2. LITERACY DYNAMICS AND THE GROWING PROBLEM OF MASS ILLITERACY

The International Co-ordination Secretariat for Literacy has disclosed that "Many Governments in Africa, Latin America and Asia have taken realistic and imaginative steps to overcome illiteracy" and that "In certain countries, through the dynamic mobilization of their resources, illiteracy has been virtually completely eradicated", while "others due to apathy, negligence (even when resources have been available) and other causes have failed to tackle their problem with serious intent" (Unesco Secretariat, 1976a, p. 13).

Recent evidence on the matter of literacy dynamics from two specialized workers in the field of adult education in Ghana and Tanzania respectively will be worth while noting in the above regard. L A Okraku wrote from Ghana that "The United Nations (had) made funds, literacy material and technical expertise available for literacy campaigns in many developing countries". However, "With the enthusiasm with which the mass literacy campaigns were tackled one would have hoped that by now the incidence of illiteracy in these countries would have reduced considerably. Unfortunately, in many developing countries the contrary is the case" (Okraku, 1976, p. 3). Three years ago Kassam had an even more serious view of the situation from Dar-es-Salaam, submitting ample proof for his statement that "In spite of intensive efforts in eradicating illiteracy in most of the countries of Africa, Asia and Latin America, the overall picture of the world illiteracy situation is still distressing" (Kassam, 1975, p. 5); for while the percentage of illiteracy had steadily fallen from 44,3% in 1950 to 39,3% in 1960 and 34,2% in 1970, Unesco surveys disclosed that the actual number of illiterates had risen by 50 million from 1960 to 1970 and to over 800 million in 1975 (Cf. Kassam, 1975, p. 5; Payne, 1975, p. 14). Moreover, Unesco estimates show that both in Africa and in Asia there will be 25 million more illiterates in 1980 than in 1975 (Cf. Bataille, 1976, p.7). This increase is ascribed to population explosion as well as inadequate and/or misdirected educational provision, i.a. lack of universal primary education, lack of clear objectives and sufficient adult literacy programs, large sums of money spent in poorer educational budgets on the education of too early school leavers and school dropouts who will relapse into illiteracy, etc. (Unesco Secretariat,1976a, p. 3; Kassam, 1975, p. 5; Muncie 1973, p. 5).

Peers points out that the scattered and haphazard voluntary efforts for the promotion of adult education in a country like India by bodies such as the Y.M.C.A.and the Community Projects Programme which was launched in 1952, spending more than 50 million rupees annually on mass education and community development and erecting some 60 thousand adult education and community centres, barely scratched the surface of the vast problem to educate some 150 million illiterates, and that no solution to the vast problem of mass ignorance has yet been found (Peers, 1972, pp. 270 - 271). As for Africa, however, some efforts to eradicate illiteracy, particularly at primary school level, appeared to be more constructive. Unesco reports that "Between 1960 and 1972 the average percentage of the gross national product allocated to education in 44 African countries rose from 2,8 to 4,7 per cent, increasing by nearly 50 per cent a year more than the GNP ..... and considerable progress in enrolment figures and enrolment rates have been recorded. ..... Yet, as a result of the pressure exercised on education systems by the rate of population growth, which has now reached 2,9 per cent - the highest in the world - this growth has neither prevented an increase in the number of children of 6 to 11 who are not at school, nor an increase in the gap between Addis Ababa targets and actual figures of enrolment. Children who have no access to school or who have dropped out prematurely are in great danger of joining the ranks of illiterates whose number had increased by 19,000,000 (only for Africa - J F) between 1961 and 1970, in spite of a significant decrease in percentage" (Unesco, 1976a, p. 13).

3.3. INADEQUACY OF SCHOOL EDUCATION AND THE PROBLEM OF ILLITERACY IN AFRICA

(a) Percentage school-going and out-of-school school-age population

A statistical analysis presented in a Unesco document shows that the enrolment in the age-group 6 - 11 years nearly doubled in Africa during the period 1960 - 1972, but notwithstanding this very serious effort to expand the primary school intake capacity, the population explosion outpaced the expansion of the primary school system to such an extent that the out-of-school population aged 6 - 11 years deteriorated by an increase of 3 million for the period (Unesco, 1975a, pp. 10 - 11). The same trend was observed for the age-group 12 - 17 years: between 1960 and 1972 the population in this group grew by 11,4 million of which only 6,8 million enrolled at school, while "the remaining 4,6 million swelled the out-of-school population which rose from 28 to 32,6 million" during the period (Unesco, 1975a p. 11).

(b) Wastage: dropouts and repeaters

It will be clear from item 4 of Annexure A that in most African countries, 30 - 40 per cent or more of the school-age children have never been to school. It is equally obvious that the high rate of wastage in the form of repeaters and early school dropouts is to be regarded as one of the main problems in Africa and the developing countries. Peyper quotes Harbison and Meyers that "in the least developed countries the holding power of schools is almost negligible: 'Many pupils start in the first grade, then drop out, and then come back again as repeaters and drop out again. In most schools the teaching fails to interest or inspire the pupils ... The great majority of those who attend school barely learn to read and write, and most of them lapse again into illiteracy after a few years" (Peyper, 1978, p. 2). This statement is clearly illustrated in item 4.3 of Annexure A, showing that out of 27 African countries for which statistics for repeaters were available, 14 had a repeater rate of more than 20% at primary level (3 above 30%!), and 13 of more than 20% in the first grade, 6 of which had the following repeater percentages in the first school grade: 32, 32, 37, 38, 41 and 50%! Only six of these countries had managed to keep repeater percentages in the primary school down to an acceptable level below 10 per cent (Percentages for first grade repeaters are given in brackets): Libya 9% (2%); Kenya 5% (5%); Ghana 4% (7%); and at the other (perhaps unacceptable?) extreme: Tanzania 2% (1%), Botswana 1% (1%) and Zambia 1% (0%). Statistics show that in many African countries more than 50% of primary school pupils drop out entirely after the second year, particularly in rural areas (Unesco, 1974, p. 17). It was also observed that in most cases, especially in rural areas, school dropout is due not only to causes inherent in the school system, but also to external factors such as undernourishment, poverty, the need to work at home with the families, the distances pupils have to travel and the fact that "In most cases, the child must leave his family in order to pursue his studies in a distant establishment and a totally different setting, possibly in a town" (Unesco, 1974, pp. 17, 36).

(c) Addis Ababa targets and achievements

It is important to note at this stage the actual achievements recorded for the targets set in respect of primary education at the 1961 Addis Ababa Conference in order to eradicate eventual adult illiteracy at primary school level. In addition to the long-range target of universal primary education on the African continent in 1980, three short-range targets were set for Africa for which the achievements were recorded as follows (Cf. Unesco, 1975b, pp. 4, 7, 10; Unesco, 1975c, p. 6):

For Target No. 1 enrolments in the first grade had to show an annual net increase of 5 per cent of the current first-grade population for a period of 10 years in order to reach a 100 per cent first-grade enrolment ratio in 1971. The achievement was, however, far short of the target in 1971, the actual first-grade enrolment for that year being only 74,1 per cent for Middle Africa and 83,9 per cent for North Africa.

Moreover, these figures do not reflect the actual percentages for the number of new entrants, for if account were taken of the proportion of repeaters (more than 30% in some countries!), it will become clear that the increases stated were due only in part to new entrants into the primary school system.

Target No. 2 was set on a substantial reduction in the dropout rate. However, statistics show no discernable reduction; there were only decreases in some countries, but in several countries the dropout rate even increased.

Target No. 3 was set on an increase of primary level education from 36,2% in 1960 to 74,2% in 1970. By 1972, however, the observed enrolment reached only 66,2% of the target.

(d) Effect on future number of illiterates

It goes without saying that literacy or illiteracy begins with primary school education. The effect on the future potential number of adult illiterates is reflected not only in the shortfall in meeting the primary level enrolment targets and the wastage reduction targets, but it should be noted at the same time that "the majority of children who have received partial schooling are incapable of overcoming the inertia of an illiterate environment and themselves lapse into illiteracy after a few years" (Unesco, 1974, p. 17). In paragraph 3.3 (a) above the actual deterioration of the position was given for the period 1960 to 1972. A Unesco projection for Africa based on the assumption that a minimum educational requirement of at least entry into the fourth grade of the primary school is necessary for the achievement of literacy, now shows that the 1970 to 1979 cohort (6 year olds in 1970 to be 15 in 1979) will contribute 3½ million adult illiterates, i.e. 56% of the cohort, in 1979, clearly showing that the reduction of non-entrants to and wastage in the primary school is far too small to offset the effect of the population growth, with the result that the actual number of new adult illiterates is rising at an alarming rate every year (Unesco, 1975b, p. 19).

3.4. RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN EXCESSIVE POPULATION GROWTH AND EDUCATIONAL PROGRESS, ILLITERACY, POVERTY AND UNDER-DEVELOPMENT

(a) Population growth and illiteracy, famine or destitution

Gavin Jones points out that, whereas "Birth rates in the Western countries are universally low, falling to low levels without any kind of official encouragement ..... the population problem facing the developing countries today is unique. As compared with Western countries when they began the transition to low birth rates, death rates in the developing countries have fallen much faster, rates of population growth are higher ..... and the 'escape valve' of migration to large underpopulated countries is not available. Hence ..... an enormous potential for population growth ..... inherent in the present unbalanced situation as the projections ..... have shown" (Jones, 1975, pp 5, 13). Dr. Laubach explains that "Modern medical science has been more successful than education. We helped them stamp out smallpox, cholera, bubonic plague, malaria, typhus and other diseases that had kept their populations stationary, and now their populations are multiplying with ever-increasing rapidity, faster than they can be educated" (Laubach, 1970, p. 15). In following up the concern for "Population Explosion and the Problems of Pedagogy" briefly intimated in Chapter 1.5 of this report, it has become evident from the foregoing sections of this chapter that, in spite of significant educational progress reported that "a laryer proportion of children are entering and proceding further through the school systems of the developing countries than ever before", the problem of mass illiteracy in pan-African perspective is still growing because "in most of Africa the expansion of the population is still outpacing the expansion of the primary school system" (Jones, 1975, p. 5; Bowers, 1976, p. 33). It will be clear from the statistical evidence and projections for future population trends already submitted in this report, and the consequential problems of development discussed in the following sub-sections of this chapter that, unless these problems could shock African and other developing countries to the realization that most of their educational development efforts will be null and void in a socio-national climate of uncontrolled birth rates and population growth, their problems of illiteracy, poverty and underdevelopment would be escalated to a point of catastrophe, unless a miracle were given from heaven. These truths may be hard to impart and harder still to accept, but one has great faith in the self-respect of leaders of these countries desiring self-dependency and non-dependency on others for their peoples in their independent countries in view of which it would be no use denying the hard facts of life. In discussing the question, "Can Africa Survive?", in a recent publication, Basil Davidson points out that in most African countries, the standard of everyday consumption is lower today than it was on the day of their political independence, the reason being that most of these countries are incapable of feeding their ever-increasing populations (Davidson, 1975, pp. 21 - 23). Referring specifically to an approximate 50 per cent annual increase in the bill for foreign food in Ghana and Nigeria (registering respectively a 2,91% and 2,86% population increase per annum according to the statistical analysis in Annexure A), Davidson concludes that "It appears to be true that the food production ..... is growing at an average rate which is decreasingly capable of feeding these populations ..... And when, in 1990, the (African) population reaches some 700 million, as it will on present projections, most Africans will be eating foreign food or, one must greatly fear, will be scarcely eating at all; and as things are going now we may than expect to see, repeated in Africa, the same tale of famine or destitution told for so long about the Indian subcontinent" (Davidson, 1975, pp. 21 - 22).

(b) Population growth, poverty and underdevelopment

Contrary to the traditional belief in many developing countries that a country's wealth lies in its children, presumably assuring a stronger labour force and future prosperity for its peoples, the following should be emphasized "To (all those) whom it may concern":

(i) More people to be fed means that more food has to be produced, and the examples cited under the above paragraph show that countries with underdeveloped human resources are incapable of doing so, with the result that their population increase is faster than their increase in food production, leaving such countries in a state of dependency and destitution. Verily, according to all the statistical evidence on the subject, there is a strong correlation or causal link between excessive population growth and illiteracy on the one hand, and illiteracy and poverty on the other, linking excessive population growth with poverty and underdevelopment in all sectors of community life (Cf. Bataille, 1976, p. 4; Bowers, 1976, p. 35; Jones, 1975, p. 30).

(ii) It being true that "The higher the rate of population growth, the less likely will the economy be able to generate self-sustained growth", it has been found in developing countries that population explosions are seriously aggravating the problems of economic development confronting such countries (Williams, 1971, p. 49; Unesco 1972, p. 3).

(c) Population growth and educational costs

(Jones, 1975, pp. 178, 35; Unesco, 1975a, pp. 26, 34; Chapter 1.5).

Considering the fact that almost all developing countries have a rate of population growth exceeding 2 per cent per year, i.e. doubling in 30 - 35 years, and that a population increase of 2,9% to 3% per year, which is the average figure for Africa, entails a doubling of the population in less than 25 years, we can now come back to the full financial implications of the intimation in Chapter 1.5 that Africa with the highest population growth and the youngest age-structure in the world, must shoulder an unequalled burder to provide schooling for its children.

(i) The number of school places, teachers, classrooms as well as the educational equipment, furniture, etc. and the entire administrative machinery will have to be doubled every 20 - 25 years merely to maintain the same percentage of children at school, i.e. without any further expansion to make provision for the education of the large percentage of the African school-age population not attending school.

(ii) The under 15 year-old group being, relatively speaking, approximately 70 per cent higher in Africa than in the more advanced countries, the total expenditure on education will have to be 70 per cent higher in Africa than in the more advanced and industrialized countries in order to approximate quantitatively and qualitatively the same educational standards.

(iii) Which underdeveloped and poverty-stricken African country can foot this bill? In discussing education, health and population growth as Lesotho's "Three Manpower Problems", J. Williams quotes Morris that "an increasing population in the face of an already low supply of resources ..... can result only in diminishing returns" (Williams, 1971, p. 49). This applies to both the quantity and the quality of education.

(d) Population growth and compulsory education

The Republic of South Africa is often criticized by uninformed outside "observers" for not having universal (compulsory) primary education for its Black nations. But outsiders do not understand the problems of Africa. Three years ago Unesco reported compulsory school attendance laws for 26 African states, explaining, however, that the existance of such laws were only of academic interest "on paper", but could not be enforced for various reasons (Cf. Unesco, 1975f, pp. 112 - 117); and these conditions have not improved since. One of the reasons mentioned in another Unesco report is the continuing tendency for the populations of the African continent to grow younger, accounting for the actual enrolment shortfall of more than 11 million for the 6 - 11 year old group on the 1972 Addis Ababa target figure for the 35 African countries which attended that conference (Unesco, 1975c, p. 6). We have already stated that 442 out of every thousand inhabitants in Africa were under 15 years of age in 1975 as against an average of 260 for the industrialized countries. In view of this demographic obstacle and for other reasons (limited financial and human resources, etc.), the following realities with regard to Africa should first be taken into account by outsiders before airing the "wisdom" of their complete ignorance on this subject:

(i) "The educationally advanced countries of the world have low birth rates and a relatively small school-age population. The educationally less advanced countries have high birth rates and a much larger proportion of their population in the school-age groups. This unfavourable age structure, combined with low income levels, constitutes a formidable barrier to the early attainment of universal quality education" (Jones, 1975, p. 215).

(ii) "The feasibility of compulsory education is intimately linked with the question of population growth. Countries that already have compulsory universal education are generally those that are able to hold population increases within reasonable bounds. In fact, universal education is extremely difficult of achievement until the population has advanced to the stage where it elects to limit the size of the average family" (Van Rensburg, 1975, p. 78).

(iii) Statistical evidence proves that in a typical Western country, the school-age population constitutes approximately 20 to 21 per cent of the total population, that is, if 20 per cent of the total population of a Western country is enrolled at school, the ideal of universal education has been achieved. This is also the case with the South African Whites; but for the South African Blacks no less than a 28 per cent enrolment of the total population is at present required for achieving universal compulsory education, a 20 per cent enrolment (as for the Whites) only representing 70 per cent of the total Black school-age population, and "unless population trends change radically, the school-age group can be as high as 30 per cent of the total Black population by 1980. The implications of this in terms of finance, facilities, staffing and for general educational progress need no spelling out". For "Other factors too, have to be taken into consideration. The quality of the education 'product' is at least as important as the actual numbers being given an education. Thus it is of enduring importance that attention be given to the quality of the teaching given to the children already in school" (Van Rensburg, 1975, p. 79).

(iv) Although an approximate 20 per cent school enrolment of the total population is the Western standard and that of the South African Whites for universal compulsory education, the actual percentage enrolment for the South African Blacks was 2 per cent higher, i.e. 22 per cent of their total populations in 1975, but this figure only represented approximately 75 per cent of their total school-age populations in that year. In the same year, however, the actual enrolment figure for the rest of Africa was only 37 per cent of the total school-age population (6 - 15 years) as against, for example, the Addis Ababa target which already aimed at a 71 per cent primary school-age enrolment five years earlier (for 1970) (R.S.A, 1977e,Col. 6057). These figures clearly show the problems with which the African continent at large has to grapple and the much more favourable position of the Black peoples in the South African sub-continent.

(e) Fertility decline and educational progress: Examples illustrated

(i) Correlation between education and fertility

(Jones, 1975, pp. 190 - 191)

Statistical evidence shows a close correlation between education and fertility: 22 studies carried out in 17 developing countries clearly showed a downward trend in family sizes as educational attainment increased, and vice versa, the downward trend becoming more pronounced in the case of educational attainments above the primary school level.

(ii) Two notable case studies signalling red and green lights
(Jones, 1975, pp. 26, 94, 117, 169, 173, 218 - 219).

Gavin Jones's reference to two case studies carried out in Thailand (population growth 3,1% per annum) and Singapore (population growth 1,49% per annum) signals red and green lights respectively to all underdeveloped countries, particularly to Africa.

A thorough investigation covering many years of education in Thailand revealed the following: Thailand was probably the first country to enact legislation for compulsory primary education (seven years) in Asia. The Compulsory Education Law was already passed in 1921, but on account of innumerable problems, especially with regard to the country's population explosion, only a more or less "static expansion" could be achieved just to keep pace with the ever-rising numbers of children, and the enforcement of the law had to be continually postponed during the 57 years that have passed since, leaving the country more or less permanently in a state of illiteracy and underdevelopment.

The case study on Singapore where the population growth showed a consistent annual decline from 3,23% to 1,49% during a period of 12 years clearly indicates, however, that by a substantial saving of their educational funds which had previously been used to cope with the ever growing numbers of children, the decline in fertility could now result in a more realistic coverage and quantitative improvement in the educational system at all levels: compulsory primary education, rapid expansion and diversification of secondary education, as well as more ambitious developments at the upper end of the educational ladder (higher education) in order to make provision for a well-trained force of skilled manpower.

Calling Africa with its high birth rates (population growth: 2,9 to 3 per cent per annum) and the South African Black nations which have to accept full responsibility for the education of their own people on becoming independent states with a population growth of about 3,2 per cent "compound interest" per year (Van Rensburg, 1975, p. 79), much hope can be spelt out in the lesson to be learnt from these studies.

(iii) The time lag
(Jones, 1975, pp. 173, 185, 217)

The case study on Singapore also sounds a warning that there is a considerable time lag between a sharp decline in fertility and its substantial effect on educational expenditures and standards. It takes, for example, 6 years to begin affecting primary school enrolments and at least 12 years to affect secondary school enrolments, emphasizing the importance of achieving a rapid decline in fertility at least 12 years before its real influence on the educational progress of the country will be felt.

3.3. QUANTITATIVE AS WELL AS QUALITATIVE ASPECTS OF EDUCATIONAL COVERAGE

It has been stated already that the quality of the education given to the African child is at least as important as the actual numbers being given an education. With regard to the quantity factor, it will be noted that despite all the problems of illiteracy, poverty, underdevelopment, educational costs and provision for universal primary education resulting from the uncontrolled population explosion in Africa, considerable effort to extend primary school enrolment in order to combat illiteracy and backwardness is reflected in item 4 of Annexure A which shows that 11 of the 44 African countries under consideration increased the net enrolments for their age-groups 6 - 11 years by more than 30 per cent in the twelve-year period between 1960 and 1972 and that 20 had a net enrolment of more than 50 per cent for this age-group, although it should not be overlooked that 14 countries still had a net enrolment figure of less than 30 per cent, four of which registered less than a 12 per cent net enrolment for their normal primary school-age populations: Ethiopia, Somalia, Niger and Upper Volta. It is obvious that many African countries have to struggle very hard to bring a higher proportion of their school-age population into their school systems, emphasizing the fact that they will still have the problem of illiteracy with them for a long time.

But it is equally clear from the statistical analysis in Annexure A that, while some countries have made considerable progress in expanding the quantity of their school enrolments, the quality of their educational coverage has generally been badly hampered by the drive for quantity. The following figures and facts from the analysis are self-explanatory:

(a) The abnormally high - and often worsening - repeater and dropout rates which have been discussed at length in section 3.3.(b) and 3.3.(c) of this chapter;

(b) The unfavourable and very often worsening pupil-teacher ratio in many of these 44 countries:

(i) In 29 countries the pupil-teacher ratio was still above 40, with 16 varying from 50 to 78! This category includes 14 of the 20 countries which were reported to have a net enrolment of more than 50 per cent for the 6 - 11 year age-group.

(ii) From 1965 until the last available dates for these statistics, generally 1973 to 1975, the pupil-teacher ratio worsened from +1 to +22 in no fewer than 18 of the 44 countries.

The most noteworthy examples of African countries that have sacrificed quality for quantity, are two of the three countries which had a 100 per cent net enrolment for the 6 - 11 year old age-group, the statistical data for the two countries being as follows:

Congo: 30% repeaters at first level education, and 32% in the first grade (1974); pupil-teacher ratio of 61 (1974) worsened against the 1965 ratio.

Gabon: 37% repeaters at first level education and 50% in the first grade (1972); pupil-teacher ratio of 50 (1974) worsened by +11 against the 1965 ratio.

(The other more happy example of a 100 per cent enrolment for this school-age group was Libya: a 9% repeater rate at first level education, of which only 2% in the first grade, and a favourable pupil-teacher ratio of 23 which shows a substantial improvement of -8 against the 1965 ratio).

There are, of course, more factors involved in the process of sacrificing quality for quantity which are not reflected in this statistical analysis, the most important of these being the training and quality of the teachers, poor physical facilities and irrelevant courses (Cf. Jones, 1975, p. 40; Houghton and Tregear, 1969, p. 13). The extent to which all these factors affect the quality of education, may be difficult to assess, but according to Gavin Jones (1975, p. 40) "There appear to be enough statements on record by ministries of education or by well-placed educational planners lamenting a deterioration in the quality of education to infer that educational quality may have indeed been a rather frequent casualty of the rapid growth of educational systems in less developed countries". In the same argumentation Jones hits hard at the malpractice of what he calls "more means worse": "What has happened to the quality of education while the massive quantitative advances of recent years have been taking place? Has it been a case of 'more means worse' ..... in a situation in which popular pressures and perhaps also questions of international prestige make governments answerable regarding the expansion of school places but not regarding the quality of education provided?"

It may appear that timely warnings of ten to twelve years ago (Greenough, 1966, p. 33; Houghton and Tregear, 1969, p. 13) with regard to this "quest for quantitative expansion without too much regard for quality" - that "just to provide more schools, more teachers, to open more doors to education ..... is not enough" without having regard for the quantitative as well as the qualitative role of education in social and economic development - have been overlooked by African governments and educational administrators. Is it perhaps another example of "the limit of a lesson not learned, even of a lesson deliberately ignored",1) or is it more obvious that the uncontrolled population growth has left most African governments in despair and completely at a loss to handle the situation, aggravating their problems of educational development to such an extent that the generation of new schemes to be indicated under the recommendations in

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1) Cf. Chapter 1.6. (a)

Chapter 6 together with the generation of a new mentality is more needed than ever before? This does not only apply to Africa; it applies to most countries in the Third World; for recent "statistics given for enrolment ratios in the twenty-five least developed countries (of the world) indicate that if trends observed in the last two decades were to continue to 1985, less than 30% of the children aged 6 - 11 would be in school by the end of the period. Thus new generations of illiterates continue to join the adult population" (Unesco Secretariat, 1976 a, p. 5).

3.6. THE EITHER-OR IMPERATIVE WITH REGARD TO THE ERADICATION OF ILLITERACY AND UNDERDEVELOPMENT IN THE WORLD, PARTICULARLY IN AFRICA

(a) After all that has been said about the alarming rate of increase of the illiterate millions in the world and the apparent ineffectiveness of the efforts to stem the tide; about illiteracy as a moral, social and economic problem and a major obstacle to development; illiteracy as dependency on others and as socio-economic and spiritual bondage; the enhancement of literacy as a crying need for raising the standards of living and as a recipe for political survival; mass ignorance as a menace to the country concerned and to the world at large, etc. - "after all said" it is clear that very much remains to be "done" to provide more education at school and adult level if previous efforts have failed. But this is easier said than done. The problems have been stated.

However, the vicious circle must be broken, for "It is an indisputable fact that, in countries where the population is predominantly illiterate, one has the concomitant curses of a low living level, hunger, disease, and a high birthrate. One may say that, as a direct result of illiteracy, the birthrate continues to rise, despite the depredations of disease, and one is confronted by a closed circle of illiteracy, low living levels, hunger, disease, high birthrate and ..... increasing numbers of illiterates" (D'Oliveira, 1977, p. 59). The impact of illiteracy as "part of the grinding sub-marginal living conditions of the majority of the peoples of the Third World" (Cf. Unesco, 1976c pp. 83 - 84), has become the either-or imperative with regard to the eradication of its curses and causes in the underdeveloped parts of the world: the "To be or not to be" cry of the twentieth century. Speaking more from a socio-eccnomic angle when addressing the American Congress, the late President John F Kennedy said that "Ignorance and illiteracy, unskilled workers and school dropouts - these and other failures of our educational system breed failures in our social and economic system: delinquency, unemployment, chronic dependence, a waste of human resources and a loss of productive power ....." (Cf. Agyekum, 1973, p. 22). Moreover, "A world divided into two groups, one of economically powerful and educationally advanced, and the other of dependent illiterates, is indeed not conducive to a just and stable international order" (Rahnema, 1976, p. 179). It is true that "Literacy is one of the first and indispensable steps to development, both for the individual and for his country", and - as such - "figures prominently among the minimum knowledge and skills which are an essential condition for attaining an adequate standard of living"; for although it may be said that "Bread must come before books" and that "Illiteracy ..... does not necessarily constitute an obstacle to increases in production", it is also true that "books can lead to more bread", the effectiveness of extension work and workers' production methods being greatly increased by their ability to read (pamphlets, figures, dates etc.), write and do the necessary measurements and calculations (Agyekum, 1973, pp. 31, 34; Unesco, 1974, pp. 44, 45).

It must, however, be strongly stressed that learning to read and write as an integrated activity in a development scheme for improving production methods and living conditions is not the ultimate aim, but merely the first step of an effective functional literacy development project, the ultimate aim being a change in outlook and attitudes and a change in mentality. In the case of more primitive, underdeveloped, illiterate societies this has to be a radical change, for man in his more primitive state is merely part of his physical world and receives what his world gives him, but cannot conquer and master it, and "For societies which have no scientific tradition and which tend to lay stress on authority and irrational or even fatalistic determinism, the belief that man is capable of breaking down the workings of the physical world into its component parts and mastering it to his own advantage, constitutes in itself a revolution" (Unesco, 1974, pp. 44, 45). It is in this regard that Paulo Freire sees literacy's "possible dream" in an educational system serving as "an instrument of social transformation", not "to passively receive a 'prefabricated' knowledge", but a methodology requiring learners to think, and educating "individuals who work to re-create the world which they inherited, and in this process of construction and reconstruction, remake themselves" (Freire, 1976, p. 71); for "more important than learning of trade skills is a critical awareness which should enable new literates to master and transform their own way of living" (Unesco, 1976c, p.65), and before the stage is reached where primitive society which is only part of its world, has been turned into a civilized society which can make something of its own world, no real success in the eradication of illiteracy and underdevelopment can be reported. For indeed, as stated by Colin Cave, the problem of illiteracy lies deeper than the three R's or a lack of skills; it is a "deep-seated emotional and psychological" problem (Payne, 1975, p. 14), and in dealing with this problem, the Final Report of the International Symposium for Literacy held in Teheran sounds a warning to all those whom it may concern that literacy work "cannot be reduced to a mere question of learning to read and write", but "is concerned with transforming mentalities and with encouraging the awakening of autonomous, critical, constructive minds, capable of changing man's relationship with man and with nature; in other words, it is concerned with propagating what one participant termed an ideology of hope" (Bataille, 1976, p. 247 - 248).

It is clear at this stage that the history of independent Africa does not generally show the development of the independence dream which many African countries would have wished for - not even for some of those which are reporting some success in their efforts to combat illiteracy. Many of these countries which exported food before independence, now have to live on foreign food or starve of hunger, as illustrated in a previous section of this chapter. Even the United Republic of Tanzania for which "imaginative" and "realistic" literacy and development projects are reported in much of the world literature on adult education, seems to be on the verge of bankruptcy today. Maybe there still remains much to be changed in the state of mind on this continent.

b) The need for intensifying the adult literacy strategy was clearly stressed at the Teheran Conference (1965) where it was pointed out that "according to figures produced by the World Bank, there was reason to fear that the number of school-age children not attending school would reach 375 million in 1985. However desirable primary schooling may be - for if illiteracy really is an evil, surely prevention is preferable to cure - it is incapable, on the basis of presently observed tendencies, of resolving this problem before the end of the century, and even, in the case of several countries, before the first decades of the twenty-first century" (Bataille, 1976, p. 246).

CHAPTER 4

LITERACY CAMPAIGNS AND THE SHIFT OF EMPHASIS FROM TRADITIONAL TO FUNCTIONAL LITERACY WORK COMBINED WITH COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

4.1. THE LAUBACH "EACH ONE TEACH ONE" LITERACY CAMPAIGNS

In Chapter 2.2 (g) a short historical introduction was given to Dr. Laubach's world literacy campaigns, summarising the historical aspects of the work of this Christian missionary who "started literacy fires" all over the world, travelling to 105 countries in 40 years since the inception of his crusade against illiteracy among the Islamic Moros of Lanao Province of Mindanao (Philippines) in 1930 and developing literacy primers and supplementary readers in 313 languages with his literacy teams for his "Each one teach one" literacy campaigns. On the cover of, and in the Introduction to his "Forty Years with the Silent Billion" written in 1970 when he was 86 years old, his untiring devotion to this crusade is characterised as a personal sacrifice that took him "Day by day, and week by week ..... over continents and oceans, via highways and jungle paths" ..... "by camel and canoe, jet, river boat, elephant, oxcart and shanks' mare" ..... "to every area of the globe inhabited by the underprivileged illiterates", teaching them to read and write and "getting people to ..... teach their less fortunate neighbours". For "Each one teach one' is the battle cry of Frank Laubach's movement ..... The hungry illiterate peoples must have education - it is the only door out of their desperate plight. Education costs money, though ..... But Frank Laubach's answer does not cost money: he urges Christians everywhere to reach out and volunteer their services and 'each one teach one'. He has found that, once shown how, today's Christians are anxious to ..... sacrifice themselves to do good".

It is claimed that Dr. Laubach and his literacy teams taught millions of illiterate people in Asia, Africa and Latin America to read and write by means of his simplified "scheme of key-word teaching" (Part II, Chapter 3); that he initiated literacy programs in nearly every country of Africa and pioneered every corner of India (Laubach, 1970, pp. 24, 48, 470 - 471). In doing so, he worked with Christian churches and missions of all denominations, the U.S. government, foreign governments, the U.S. Agency for International Development, Unesco, various Foundations and Endowments, and numerous other bodies and individual contributors (Laubach, 1970, pp. 465 - 466, 474 - 475).

It is also claimed that "The genius of the Laubach approach lies in the apostolic nature of the each one teach one method" (Laubach, p. 475). Dr Laubach regards the teaching of illiterates not only as "a means of extending the gospel ..... because every Christian needs to read his Bible", but based his entire "each one teach one" method on the love and teaching of the Lord Jesus, maintaining that "The most convincing reason why Christians should 'each one teach one' is because they can put Christ in the hearts of their students while putting knowledge in their heads ..... It is the most natural thing in the world ..... to say, at the end of the first lesson: 'Perhaps you are surprised that I am teaching you without any pay. I learned it from Jesus, who is my Lord ..... His great heart burned to help everybody. He put some of His love in my heart .....'. At the end of each lesson we tell a little four-minute story about the marvelous, loving deeds of Jesus - there are 250 of them in the gospels. By the time the student finishes the primer, he has learned to love Jesus. Then he reads our very easy The Story of Jesus, retold from the gospels ....." (Laubach, 1970, pp. 16, 478 - 479). With regard to the training of Laubach teachers, Dr Laubach established the following practice which is still used today by all the Laubach schools, also by the "Operation Upgrade of Southern Africa" (headquarters: Durban, South Africa) which will be discussed in a later chapter (Part II): "In a ten-hour workshop -

a couple of hours a night for five nights - anybody who can read his own language can be taught to tutor one other person ..... Over half the human race constitute our reservoir of tutors - to teach for love and not for money" (Laubach, 1970, pp. 478 & 480).

Indeed, the Laubach literacy crusades tell a wonderful story, and it is clear that there is good faith in his "each one teach one" method which is still being carried on today in many corners of the earth, also in South Africa. And yet it struck me that in the large number of works of authority I have read on adult education and literacy campaigns in Africa, including more than a dozen Unesco publications, no mention has been made of the use of the Laubach method. Did Christians fail to respond to the Laubach call, or are there other reasons why the method may not have withstood the test of the time in Africa - for example, the neglect of combining literacy teaching with development projects (i.e. "functional" literacy)? However, if mistakes have been or are being made, there is no reason why the good should be rejected with the bad. We shall come back to the Laubach "each one teach one" literacy strategy and its adaptation to South African conditions after a fuller discussion of the "Operation Upgrade" method in Part II of this work.

4.2. REVOLUTIONARY MASS LITERACY CAMPAIGNS IN SOME NON-AFRICAN COMMUNIST COUNTRIES

4.2.1. Taking cognizance of an example set to the democratic world

It was part of Lenin's creed that illiterate persons cannot build a communist state, and it should be noted that all revolutionary governments have given high priority to enforcing the eradication of illiteracy for political reasons as well as for promoting the process of production, the result being that the successful application of the strategy of mass literacy campaigns has been mainly associated with communist revolutions in countries like the Soviet Union, Cuba and Vietnam (Unesco, 1976c, p. 111; Bowers, 1976, p. 35). Although, admittedly, the administrative machinery may be better geared for providing and even enforcing successful literacy campaigns in a dictatorship than in a democracy, it will be clear from the following paragraphs that there is a great deal to be implemented from the example set by these countries to the democratic world.

4.2.2. The USSR and Cuba

(a) The U.S.S.R.

The largest literacy campaign in all history has been that carried on by Russia since 1921. Under the czars Russia was behind the other European countries in literacy, probably less than 9 per cent of its population being able to read intelligently in 1920, but with the forceful measures taken by Lenin and Stalin, proclaiming literacy to be among the first necessities for a communist government and enforcing Russia-wide literacy campaigns for all illiterate adults, both men and women, in specially prepared textbooks in the 58 principal languages in the USSR, "the campaign gathered momentum with an astonishing speed" and "a nation of 160 million people had been made literate in fifteen years" (Cf Laubach, 1970, pp. 20 - 21).

(b) Cuba

After the 1959 revolution Cuba started its literacy campaign with two notable advantages: a much lower illiteracy rate, and "a single, phonetically regular, national language with an extensive international literature" (Bowers, 1976, p. 37). Before the revolution Cuban education was, however, inadequate and chaotic: although primary education was theoretically free and compulsory, there were hardly enough schools for half the school-age population, and a national campaign aimed at the enrolment not only of the entire school-age population but also of the illiterate adult population (Unesco, 1971, pp. 355 - 356), was launched with spectacular results for various reasons, more or less similar to those which characterised the Russian campaign, namely:

- a strong leader decreeing the campaign;
- social pressure of the revolution on the illiterates;
- social pressure of the revolution on literates to volunteer for teaching illiterates;
- schools and universities largely closed down temporarily in 1961 so as to enable pupils and students to volunteer as literacy instructors, and teacher corps accordingly organized in uniform into "literacy brigades";
- well-graded teaching materials and "teachers'" guides prepared and used for the campaign;
- "an efficient communication network through party cells used to detect illiterates, mobilise literates, distribute materials and organise the programme";
- content of campaign "emotively linked to land reform and to legitimised violence in the war against capitalism"

(Bowers, 1976, p. 37; Unesco, 1976e, p. 127)

A special feature of the Cuban rural development revolution was the self-supported Cuban secondary school as a production and training unit in the countryside, gradually replacing the urban secondary school (Cf. Part II, Chapter 1).

4.2.3. The literacy revolution in Vietnam

(Khôi, 1976, pp. 124 - 136; Unesco, 1976c, pp. 111 - 120; Unesco 1971, pp. 1384 - 1386).

The literacy revolution in the Democratic Republic of Vietnam is a story of remarkable successes achieved in a literacy campaign determined by a nation's struggle for a new social and economic order and calls for a fuller exposition in view of the fact that the literacy measures taken by this revolutionary government may also be suitably adapted to the more flexible living conditions under non-revolutionary governments. Of special importance are the following:

(a) Prior to the revolution the illiteracy rate of the country was very high, 80 - 90 per cent of the population being illiterate. The day after the proclamation of the republic, on 3 September 1945, however, President Hồ Chi Minh assigned three important tasks to the nation: to conquer hunger, the foreign aggressor and ignorance.

(b) A Department of Popular Education was set up and the nation was immediately called up for strong action in the eradication of illiteracy, the following to be noted in particular: in order to make the country strong and prosperous, each Vietnamese citizen should be able to read and write for a better contribution to work of national construction; illiterates should make every attempt to learn, and those who could do so, had to pass on their knowledge to others - husbands to wives, children attending school to their parents, etc.

(c) Literacy courses organized all over the country, merged into political classes aimed at raising the political consciousness of the masses in their revolutionary struggle and in the process of production.

(d) Propaganda and mass mobilization measures proved to be a most effective link in the campaign: anti-illiteracy slogans, processions through the streets, popular songs deriding young people who were unwilling to learn to read and write, etc.

(e) Various encouragement measures played an important role, e.g. prize-giving ceremonies and the distribution of certificates in honour of those who conquered their own illiteracy at the end of each literacy course; letters of congratulation sent by the President to instructors, pupils and regions that achieved successes in the literacy campaign; a series of government rewards e.g. the Order of Labour to villages, districts and provinces on completing the eradication of illiteracy within the accepted norms.

(f) In only one year (1945 - 1946), 2½ million people were taught to read and write: indeed a remarkable achievement (even though the degree of literacy was rather superficial!), considering that the task had to be carried out in war conditions, the 13-year long resistance of the French occupation in the North being mainly responsible for the fact that illiteracy could not be entirely eliminated before 1958.

(g) It is important to note the reports that there has been no relapse into illiteracy in Vietnam since 1954, the reason being that learning to read and write is merely regarded as the first step towards literacy and that constant efforts have been made to raise the educational level of the people through books, periodicals, newspapers, libraries, etc.

(h) "Labour Schools" for young adults possess their own farms, half of the curriculum being taken up by study and the other half by production. The pupils are responsible for putting up and running the schools and satisfy their own requirements by production and stock breeding.

(i) A system of further education for adults for completing the three stages of general education by attending further education classes, has been greatly extended since 1950, and each province has its own secondary school for adults, enabling peasants and workers to qualify for entrance to the secondary technical schools and institutions for higher learning. It has been recorded that three million adults were taking complementary further education courses between 1961 and 1966.

(j) A special feature of the campaign has also been the tremendous effort to develop the country's human resources at primary, secondary and tertiary levels of education. The following achievements recorded for the early years (some of them still under war conditions) read like a page from a fairy tale book: in the 9 years between 1955/1956 and 1964/1965 the number of pupils enrolled at general education schools (primary and secondary) more than trebled, and during the same period the secondary technical schools (established since 1950) experienced an enrolment increase from 2½ thousand to approximately 80 thousand. From 1958 to 1964 the enrolment at the University of Hanoi increased from 5 thousand to 26 thousand! Thousands of students avail themselves of the facilities offered by university evening and extension correspondence courses without interrupting their daily occupations.

(k) The number of institutions for the training of teachers also increased rapidly. Primary teacher training colleges offer shorter courses for graduates of the seven-year upper primary schools and extended courses for entrants with only a four-year primary education. It should be noted, therefore, that whereas the three-year "third degree" or secondary course usually leads to the university or civil service, the standard of the primary teacher education is generally low.

(l) Organized accelerated or rapid teacher training courses of five to six days for literacy work are widely offered by the regions and mass organizations with a view to providing the maximum results in the least possible time.

(m) It has also been the experience in Vietnam that "The political factor (struggle for independence, struggle for social emancipation) is the most powerful driving force in persuading populations to accept the necessary sacrifices to wipe out ignorance. But the political factor is not enough ..... Ideology must be backed up by a suitable *organization*. The work must be carried out in accordance with a *mass line*, that is, the masses must be persuaded that literacy can benefit them as well as the country, that it is their job to implement literacy programmes, and that they should do so by relying mainly on their own forces (material and human) rather than on those of the state. This line therefore contrasts with the bureaucratic line, which depends on decisions taken at the summit, without the participation of those primarily concerned, and on completely external financing ..... In other words, we are not concerned here with doing things for the masses, but rather with making them capable of carrying out the work *themselves*, finding the necessary resources from within their *own environment*, with a minimum of outside assistance" (Khôi, 1976, p. 135).

4.3. MASS LITERACY CAMPAIGNS WITH A VIEW TO LITERACY AS ENHANCEMENT OF POPULAR PARTICIPATION IN SOCIO-ECONOMIC AND POLITICAL LIFE

The object of the revolutionary mass literacy campaigns as described under the previous section, may be clearly defined as literacy for the enhancement of popular participation in economic, social and political life. Like the USSR, Cuba and Vietnam, many other countries in Asia, Latin America and Africa have launched such mass literacy campaigns, some with a considerable degree of success, but some with most disappointing results, notable examples of the latter in Africa being Ethiopia, Ghana, Guinea, presumably Somalia, and to a lesser extent Algeria, Cameroon and Zambia (Cf. Annexure A). The following may serve as examples to illustrate the varying degrees of success achieved:

(a) China: 80% of the population was illiterate in 1949; in 1976 it was only 25%, and this success "was achieved by utilizing the energy potential of the people, by involving them in their own process of education, by decentralizing the literacy administration to local communes, by giving the teachers working in the countryside a higher status and the label of honour" (Unesco Secretariat, 1976a, p. 18).

(b) The position in Ghana was recently characterised as follows: "Ghana is one of the countries that embraced literacy campaigns with vigour during the late 40s and throughout the 50s. Ghana's department for community development was characteristically named mass education department and the personnel mass education officers. Training of voluntary leaders in the Laubach technique was carried out extensively. Every community development project was preceded by a literacy class. Literacy days were colourful occasions which attracted both chiefs and subjects. But gradually the enthusiasm died down ..... Adult educationists in Ghana in the 1975s now mourn the absence of enthusiasm for mass literacy campaigns and the increase in the illiteracy rate in the country" (Okraku, 1976, p. 3; Cf. also Annexure A). Obviously the Laubach method preceding community development projects instead of being integrated with such projects (Cf. remaining parts of this chapter and Chapter 5), did not work well in this (as in other) countries to guarantee sustained interest and effort.

(c) The relative failure of mass literacy campaigns recorded for Ethiopia, Guinea, Somalia and other countries will be obvious from the statistical evidence given in Annexure A. Even the concentrated effort in Somalia to mobilize students and teachers for teaching reading and writing to farmers, craftsmen and herdsmen all over the country with a view to reducing the illiteracy rate from 90% to 20% during the two year period from 1973 to 1975 did not seem to prove a success.

4.4. MASS LITERACY CAMPAIGNS AND PRECAUTIONARY MEASURES

The relative failure of many of the mass literacy campaigns serve as a warning that we are dealing with a problem of a very complex nature which should be handled with the utmost caution and precaution, failing which, we are sure to have a practical manisfestation of fools blindfoldedly rushing in where angels fear to tread. The mistakes made could, however, have been avoided by taking the necessary precautionary measures, i.a. the following.

(a) Do not "rush in" by recruiting all literates for a country-wide literacy campaign. This method might have worked well in an efficient communication network of party cells under revolutionary governments in the USSR and Cuba, but from the Cuban example cited under section 4.2. above, it will also be clear that nothing was left to chance in these well-organized campaigns. The following measures seem to be relevant to the problem under consideration (Cf Okraku, 1976, pp. 3 - 4):

(i) First identify the occupational groups and adapt well-prepared literature and follow-up reading materials accordingly so that both teachers and learners will know their goal. The reading material should be prepared before the campaign starts and should be tested out with representative groups before being released for use. Follow-up material should include vernacular newspapers which should attract the interest of the new literates both in content and in the size of the letters. To start a literacy campaign without having a sufficient supply of suitable reading material at hand, is to start a failure.

(ii) Irrespective of Dr Laubach's firm belief in his "each one teach one" method, experience in Ghana, Somalia and other countries has shown that it is doubtful whether a literacy campaign can be launched with lasting success without a team of well-trained personnel to handle not only the training, but also the supervision of voluntary teachers in order to ensure that the teaching is carried out effectively.

(iii) There must be close collaboration between the literacy organization and the different services directly or indirectly concerned with adult education, e.g. those of the health officer, the family planning officer, the agricultural extension worker, etc.

(iv) Moreover, it has proved to be a highly recommendable method to carry out a pilot scheme first, and when this succeeds, to expand the campaign to cover a wider area.

(b) It is a generally accepted principle today that the mass literacy campaigns must always be functional in character in its close relation to national development schemes. Okraku sounds the warning that "countries tended to emphasise the number of literates they had produced within a given period without bothering to evaluate the whole exercise in relation to development" and explains that "already formal education in many developing countries carries the tog of non-functionality which has led to an increase in unemployment as many more children receive formal schooling. Adult Education can be spared this ordeal" (Okraku, 1976, p. 4).

4.5. "TRADITIONAL" VERSUS "FUNCTIONAL" LITERACY

The problem of literacy campaigns for rural and urban populations has been a cause of concern for many governments, particularly for the Third World countries of Africa. In attempting to solve this problem, it has become usual to organize mass literacy campaigns of a traditional nature, i.e. mere instruction in reading, writing and (sometimes) numeracy. With the relative failure of mass literacy campaigns of this kind, however, so many high hopes have foundered that it has been recognized today that the map of world illiteracy coincides closely with the map of world poverty, and that these traditional methods are not adequate to deal with the problems of poverty and underdevelopment, ignorance and disease confronting developing countries and will not solve the problem of illiteracy before there is a shift of emphasis from traditional to functional literacy, combining literacy teaching with national development schemes and ensuring that the new literate will be able to apply his knowledge of reading and writing to problems and topics directly connected with his daily life (Maida, 1977a, p. 1; Cf Bataille, 1976, p. 30; Lowe, 1970, pp. 9 - 10). In fact, it has become recognized that the three R's are of limited value unless related to practical activities; if a literacy campaign is to aid development, it must be relevant to the culture of the people and their production methods (Pirie, 1976, p. 33; Okraku, 1976, p. 3). The example of Ghana may once again serve as an illustration. In scrutinizing the non-functionality of the unsuccessful literacy campaigns in this country, L.A. Okraku writes: "What did the reading material deal with? A casual glance through the first primers reveal that the emphasis was to help the new literates to recognise letters and words. It had little to do with vocation .... There was no follow-up literature in agriculture or fishing which the new literate could read to improve his knowledge in his vocation ..... For all practical purposes then the literate found no use for his knowledge. Most of them quickly reverted to illiteracy" (Okraku, 1976, p. 3).

A better understanding has, however, been achieved today of illiteracy as the cause as well as the result of underdevelopment; consequently of literacy as part of national development projects.

Unesco noted that "While the Montreal Conference prepared the ground for new and original concepts in respect of literacy work, it was in Teheran during the 1965 World Congress of Ministers of Education on the Eradication of Illiteracy, that the expression 'functional literacy' gained currency as a designation for literacy work combined with socio-economic and vocational training conceived as an element in a development activity" (Unesco, 1972, p. 8). Unesco offers the following definition: "Functional literacy training is distinguished from so-called traditional literacy training in that it ceases to be an isolated, separate operation, let alone an end in itself, but treats the illiterate in a group context in relation to a given environment, and with a view to development ..... It is ..... adjusted to specific economic and social objectives. The advocates of traditional literacy training aim at giving the illiterate sufficient command of the mechanisms of reading, writing and elementary arithmetic to afford him access to the written or printed word. In a functional literacy programme, on the other hand, instruction in reading and writing and the training component (technical, occupational, scientific, socio-economic, civic, etc.) are not conducted separately nor dissociated in time; they are integrated activities, each entering intimately into the other" (Unesco, 1976b, p. 9). In view of the fact that we have found a great deal of misrepresentation in the literature of some isolated literacy campaigns, designating traditional literacy teaching in the three R's as 'functional' literacy, there can be no mistake about Unesco's interpretation that "Literacy is only functional ..... to the extent that it conveys a technical, vocational, social and economic content related to development requirements" (Unesco, 1976b, p. 30). In fact, "Literacy campaigns conceived as isolated activities are, at best, a 'spring rain', producing a moment of hope in an arid environment", and unless "tackled as an integral part of all activities related to development" and "accompanied by a well-conceived follow-up programme, ... the positive effects will be transitory" and "The disappointment and frustration engendered ..... enduring" (Rahnema, 1976, pp. 170, 173). For "The illiterate's situation does not necessarily change if he is taught to read and write"; with Rahnema we may ask the question: "Literacy for what? .... For reading the word or the world?" (Rahnema, 1976, pp. 165, 166). Already at the Teheran Congress (1965) it was concluded that "Rather than an end in itself, literacy should be regarded as a way of preparing man for a social, civic and economic role that goes far beyond the limits of rudimentary literacy training consisting merely in the teaching of reading and writing. The very process of learning to read and write should be made an opportunity ..... to improve living standards, ... increased productivity, ... a better understanding of the surrounding world", and should lead new literates to become masters of their destiny (Unesco, 1976e, p. 10; Rahnema, 1976, p. 165).

There is authoritative evidence that most of the recent literacy activities in Africa are of the above character, gearing their curricula to life and functional skills (Cf. Bataille, 1976, pp. 19 - 20). Algeria, Gabon, Niger, Tunisia and Upper Volta are some of the countries mentioned in this regard. Also in Botswana a fresh wind has been blowing in a recent report on education (Botswana Report, 1977, p. 167). Statistical evidence contained in Annexure A will, however, reveal that some of these countries are still in such a state of educational backwardness that we shall have to wait for a long time for the real test of the time.

4.6. UNESCO'S EXPERIMENTAL WORLD LITERACY PROGRAMME (EWLP)[1]

4.6.1. General Orientation

In 1963 the U.N. General Assembly called upon Unesco to launch a world literacy campaign for the eradication of mass illiteracy. After calculating the cost factor for imparting basic literacy training to over 700 million illiterate adults and in view of the low success rates of basic mass literacy campaigns in the non-communist world, however, Unesco proposed a new strategy at the World Conference on the Eradication of Illiteracy held in Teheran in 1965, namely an experimental selective and intensive strategy for functional literacy which might eventually lead to a possible world campaign. In order to draw the financial support of the U.N. Development Programme (UNDP), the term "work-oriented" literacy was used synonymously with functional literacy, stressing the integration of literacy teaching with training for work and economic development. On this basis the EWLP was initiated in 1966 for a five-year period and ultimately extended to a second five-year period for 1971 - 1976. After a series of contacts and missions in 52 Member States, a number of pilot projects were undertaken in 13 countries within the framework of the EWLP, the most important being those in the 11 countries which declared themselves ready to support the experimental projects integrating literacy training with occupational training so as to determine to what extent occupational and literacy training will reinforce each other and lead to increased productivity and improved living standards for new literates. The eleven countries were: Algeria, Ethiopia, Guinea, Madagascar, Mali, Sudan and Tanzania in Africa; India, Iran and Syria in Asia, and Ecuador in Latin America.[2]

The Experimental World Literacy Programme was an unprecedented international effort to stop the deteriorating position with regard to illiteracy in the world (percentages decreasing but absolute numbers increasing by millions a year) and was undertaken jointly by Unesco, UNDP (which financed the international aspect of most of these projects) and various national governments availing themselves of a network of regional and sub-regional centres and institutions which assisted the national campaigns.

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[1] Cf. Unesco, 1976e, pp. 9 -11, 119-120, 131-136, 143, 145-147, 152-157, 161, 164, 176-182, 191-194; ..... Unesco, 1972, pp. 9-24; ..... Unesco, 1974, p. 44; ..... Unesco, 1976c, p. 64; ..... Bataille, 1976, pp. 28-59; ..... Bowers 1976, pp. 33, 35, 38.

[2] The remaining two countries were Afghanistan and Venezuela.

4.6.2. Aims and Objectives

The dual objective of the experimental programme was: first and mainly, to test and demonstrate the economic and social returns of literacy and to study the mutual relations between literacy training and social and economic development; second, to prepare the way for an eventual world campaign for the eradication of illiteracy.

4.6.3. Scale and Diversification

(a) More than a million people were enrolled in 131 functional literacy programmes (over 20 000 groups) in the various EWLP projects carried out in the eleven countries during the preproduction stage, 1967 - 1972.

(b) The majority of the participants (55%) were women (75% women in Tanzania), and most of them were young adults above 15 years, the average being 24 years, and only 4% being over 45 years of age.

(c) Most participants (86%) were from the agricultural sector, and the remaining 14% from the industrial sector (3,6%), the arts and crafts sector (1,4%) and from various other services (9%).

4.6.4. Organization and Planning

(a) In view of the fact that functional literacy claims to be a method of improving the productive qualities of illiterate adults through the medium of instruction in reading and writing, the planning of the EWLP functional literacy work entailed a highly centralized organizational system for literacy teaching as an integral part of a wide variety of economic and social operations to cater for the various vocational needs of the participants in 25 different languages. Thousands of people had to be recruited, employed and trained in a wide range of capacities as planners, supervisors, instructors and functional literacy teachers.

(b) The capital investment in buildings, equipment, etc. was, however, relatively low, since EWLP could use partially employed and potentially useful material and human resources such as school premises and voluntary instructors, as well as resources made available by other bodies, e.g. firms' premises, industrial technicians and agricultural extension workers.

(c) Traditional literacy campaigns were also carried on side by side with the pilot project in most EWLP countries, and in countries like Algeria, Guinea, Madagascar, Mali and Tanzania EWLP could rely to such an extent on the national campaigns that the same personnel was often responsible for both schemes.

4.6.5. Steps in Method

Twelve steps for the EWLP functional literacy method were specified in the following order of succession:

Step 1 - Identification of objectives to which the programme is to be effectively linked

Step 2 - Investigation of the milieu

Step 3 - Identification of problems: Note section 4.6.6. below

Step 4 - Educational aims to be adopted accordingly

Step 5 - Selection of participants: groups to be homogeneous according to vocation, age, sex, previous activity, etc.

Step 6 - Recruitment of instructors: Note section 4.6.6(e) below.

Step 7 - Construction of the curriculum: language learning (reading and writing) to be simultaneous with but subordinated to the vocational and technical training for the separate groups in order to achieve the desired results[1]

Step 8 - Training and retraining of instructors: Note section 4.6.9(a) below.

Step 9 - Production of didactic material

Step 10- Pedagogical relationship: Participation of adults in programme

Step 11- Evaluation and retro-action: section 4.6.7. below

Step 12- Self-training and self-education constituting the final step in the functional literacy method

4.6.6. Problem Areas

(a) Change resistance and political will

The first problem was to overcome the inertia and resistance of traditional systems, governments, environments and participants to any form of innovation and change in traditional ways of living, working and thinking.

(b) Slackness and unprecision in respect of local level administration

The wisdom of the EWLP approach called for local initiative with international assistance and guidance. Reports show, however, that this partnership ideal was difficult to achieve, particularly in Africa. Only some countries, notably Algeria and Tanzania, provided a moderate degree of learner participation in management and/or planning, but in most countries the local committees were unprecise in their office, met irregularly and tended to be short-lived. It is reported that one project's co-ordination committee met only twice in four years, and that of another, only once in three years. Moreover, in one project the national and local co-ordination committees were simply ignored, while in another country the agricultural extension workers had no contact with literacy instructors owing to lack of interministerial co-ordination.

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[1] Note, however, Chapter 6, Recommendation No. 31(a)

(c) Administrative and geographical delays

Lack of responsibility often led to long delays; more often, however, lack of transportation was reported as a major problem hampering the promotion of adult literacy. In one case, more than a year elapsed between the purchase and delivery of books and literacy materials.

(d) Literacy primers and materials

There were many fallacies in the use of literacy primers and reading materials (Unesco, 1976e, pp. 139 - 140):

(i) Primers were not always suitably adjusted to the needs of adults. In one exceptional case the functional literacy primers appeared to be simply a reprint of children's text books replacing the word "child" by "adult".

(ii) There was often an unbridged gap between literacy primers and other vocational materials.

(iii) In several EWLP countries literacy work was badly hampered by a lack of adequate follow-up reading material, which was often the cause of relapse of new literates into illiteracy. In most countries follow-up material had to be developed virtually from scratch, a notable example being Tanzania where the government ran a national campaign for obtaining suitable book manuscripts.

(e) Personnel

(i) Lack of personnel (instructors, supervisors, administrators, technicians and field personnel) was reported to be a major problem, i.a. in Iran, Ethiopia, Mali and Tanzania.

(ii) Instructor to learner ratio: A relatively low instructor to learner ratio - preferably not more than 1:20/24 - is a necessity for a successful literacy campaign. In the Cuban campaign, for example, it was reported to be 1:7. With EWLP's severe man- and woman-power restraints, however, most of the classes in the African countries were reported to be overcrowded, the highest average being 46 in the United Republic of Tanzania.

(iii) Instructor attitudes and methods: Numerical lack of teachers and other personnel was not the only problem experienced. Authoritarian instructor attitudes towards class participants and lack of understanding of their problems were reported to be detrimental factors in most African campaigns. Moreover, school teachers employed on a part-time basis as literacy instructors often used school methods which are most unsuitable for teaching adults; e.g. "at the end of the research phase of the Iran project only 6 per cent of school-teacher literacy instructors used the group discussion method strongly urged in their training and manual" (Unesco, 1976e, p. 134). Again, school teachers often had little or no knowledge of farming, and only a limited degree of co-ordination between literacy and technical instructors was reported.

(f) Balance between two main subject areas

Lack of clear guidelines in respect of the balance between the two main subject areas, i.e. instruction in the three R's on the one hand, and subject matter for functional literacy work- and community-oriented training on the other, resulted in a varied divergence of practices from project to project and in many failures. On the one extreme Algeria and Mali were reported to have spent approximately 80 per cent of the class time on the three R's, whereas at the other extreme Sudan introduced only 3 or 4 new words in a class session and seemed to spend most of the time on technical training. This matter also seemed to be a problem area in the event of the evaluation of the results, and it seems highly questionable whether the reported average of two-thirds of the time being devoted to the three R's, could serve as a valid norm. EWLP could not offer the solution and it remains an open question whether trends of over-emphasis of any one of these two main areas which should receive equal stress in order not to defeat the purpose of the functional literacy programme, should not be seen as one of the reasons for the relative failure reported for the experimental program.

(g) Problems of evaluation are discussed in the next section

4.6.7. Evaluation: Functions, Problems, Criteria and Procedures

(a) Function of evaluation

Although encountering greater obstacles than originally visualized, the testing function of the Programme was regarded as an indispensable measure for assessing the effectiveness of the pilot projects which could not be left to chance, even in the event of suspicion and resistance to this part of the programme from some African countries.

(b) Problems of evaluation

(i) Bowers writes that "the evaluation of literacy programmes ..... proved so difficult, inconclusive and lacking in comparability" that "In spite of large sums spent on evaluation in the Unesco World Literacy Programme attempts to assess the effect of literacy on individual behaviour gave inconclusive results, whilst attempts to measure the impact of literacy on development were largely abandoned" (Bowers, 1976, pp. 33, 35).

(ii) One of the main problems was the inability of EWLP evaluators to find criteria for a systematic and well-balanced assessment of the results obtained from instruction in the two main subject areas, i.e. instruction in the three R's and work- and community-oriented training, both separately and in their functional and mutual inter-relationship, particularly against the background of varying socio-economic levels of development aggravating these problems.

(iii) Another problem was that the summarative evaluation of the programme was done externally by the U.N. agencies involved in the EWLP, and not both externally and internally in a mutual partnership also involving self-evaluation undertaken by the local authorities themselves in order to enable them to realize the progress they had made, the problems encountered and how to solve them. In consequence, national authorities suspiciously regarded the external evaluation of a programme carried out by local participation as an imposition of external authority and either resisted it, as in the case of Guinea, Madagascar and Mali, or treated it with indifference.

(c) Criteria for evaluation

(i) The generally accepted norm for the fundamental knowledge and skills required for literacy in the traditional sense (reading, writing and numeracy) is the successful completion of roughly four years of primary schooling which should also form the basis for the evaluation of adult literacy in this subject area.

(ii) The overriding goal of the functional literacy programme being to bring about the necessary changes in attitude and mind for the new literate's participation in the mastery and transformation of his socio-economic environment, a clear assessment of these changes must be formulated as the second criterium for the evaluation of the programme.

(iii) A third criterium for which no allowance was made in the EWLP or in Unesco's critical assessment of the programme, concerns the evaluation of the two main subject areas mentioned in sub-section (b) above, in their functional and mutual interrelationship.

(iv) For purposes of control and obviously with a view to making the adaptations necessitated by special circumstances while the project was in progress, the EWLP called for a continuous summarative evaluation of every phase of a particular project and not only an evaluation at the end of the programme.

(v) Evaluation programmes should be clearly though flexibly conceived and should also make provision for a mutual partnership with local national decision-makers, particularly in view of EWLP's experience with regard to problems of evaluation mentioned in section 4.6.7(b) above.

(vi) The cost-effectiveness of the programme will have to be considered as a criterium for evaluation.

(d) Elucidation of certain procedures (Unesco Secretariat, 1976b, pp. 55 - 59).

The changes that could be measured under the second main subject matter area mentioned above, were expressed in the form of 167 indicators in the Experimental World Literacy Programme, some notable features being the following:

(i) Integration into the milieu: i.a. a greater proportion of children in schools; the use of reading and writing to obtain necessary information; involvement in civil and social organizations; better economic management; future-oriented behaviours adopted more frequently, e.g. family planning, savings accounts, etc.; ability to seek counsel and technical assistance more readily.

(ii) Control of the milieu: better production practices and occupational skills; higher quality of working habits and skills, i.a. lower absenteeism of workers; more effective farming practices, e.g. the use of pesticides, fertilizers, high-yield crops, etc.; sounder health, sanitary and dietary practices, etc.

(iii) Transformation of the milieu: attitudes leading to improvement of production and standards of living; better understanding of the use of modern technological exploits for overcoming the inconstancy and limitations of the natural phenomena and environment; awareness of responsibility for improving the community; interest in change in environment, etc.

4.6.8. Results

(a) Despite the problems of evaluation and the lack or questionability of criteria with regard to the evaluation of certain subject areas mentioned, the EWLP evaluation unit supplied the following rather flattering figures (Unesco Secretariat, 1976 b, pp. 54 - 57):

(i) Reading and writing

- In the reading test, success rates ranged from 38% in Tanzania (where an equivalent of only 2 years of primary education is taken as the norm for literacy), to 89% in Ecuador, the unweighted average being 74%;

- In the writing test, success rates ranged from 38% in Sudan to 76% in Ecuador, the unweighted average being 71%.

(ii) Technical and vocational skills and participation in and control and transformation of the environment

The following were reported: 53% significantly satisfactory plus 30% satisfactory changes; 12% unsatisfactory changes plus 5% no changes.

(b) Notwithstanding the relatively high percentages of success recorded by the EWLP Evaluation Unit, Unesco questioned the viability of these results in its own examination and "critical assessment" of the Programme, maintaining that the "positive" results reported were based on very modest changes and were few in number; in fact, that relatively few of all the socio-economic changes advocated in the programmes - probably less than a third - were ever adopted by the participants and that the results were far from spectacular, if not at all disappointing (Unesco, 1976e, pp. 173, 182, 190).

(c) With regard to the cost-effectiveness of functional literacy the following should be noted: After deducting the amount allocated to Research and Development from the total costs, the actual operational costs for the functional literacy programmes varied from 5,38 to 12,10 dollar per participant enrolled, and from 8,54 to 161,50 dollar per final participant. These figures are much lower than the unit costs of primary education in the countries studied, showing that "functional literacy is an economically advantageous proposition and that school pedagogy can benefit from its pedagogical approach" (Cf Bataille, 1976, p. 60; Unesco 1976e, p.194).

(d) In at least one country (non-African) the functional literacy programme seemed to have had a very favourable impact on family planning: evaluation of the programme showed that the new literates in Iran considered the reduction of the family size to 2 or 3 children as ideal, stressing an important consideration for future literacy action that, in placing new literates before the choice of "more children or the hope for a higher material living standard", ... "literacy is seen to be at the very least a vehicle for increasing the responsibility of new literates in selecting family size" (Unesco, 1976e, p. 178).

(e) The complexity of literacy work when linked to development was clearly underlined by the Experimental Programme. For this very reason the EWLP's second objective, viz. to prepare the way for an eventual world campaign for the eradication of illiteracy, did not seem to have been achieved (Unesco Secretariat, 1976a, p. 29).

4.6.9. Lessons and recommendations from an examination of the EWLP's experiments and results

(a) Personnel

(i) The use of professional and non-professional instructors

The use of primary school teachers on a part-time basis for literacy work is recommended on condition that this practice must be preceded by a short, intensive pre-service training course for purposes of orientation in the fundamentals of the development project and the psychological factors involved in teaching adults (Unesco, 1976e, p. 133).

Following on EWLP's experience that

- all EWLP countries had to draw instructors from other sectors (skilled workers, students, civil servants, farmers, etc.) ,and that

- instructors who have had no previous professional training as teachers, can obtain equally good results as professional teachers if carefully planned teaching material, simply conceived and containing the necessary instructions, is used,

it is strongly recommended that "widespread and imaginative use of non-professional teachers may be the only way for countries with high illiteracy rates to become literate" and that such countries should launch large-scale campaigns to mobilize the literate section of the population for this purpose (Unesco, 1976e, pp. 133 - 134; Bataille, 1976, p. 62).

(ii) Training and retraining of instructors

It was found that a short and intensive initial training course for instructors, followed by periodical retraining sessions, is more effective than a long initial training without retraining; and again, that this training should be based on actual practice in the handling of the didactic materials (Unesco Secretariat, 1976 b, p. 46).

(iii) Attitudes and understanding

On this matter has been reported in a previous section. The instructor's sensitivity to and sympathetic understanding of the unfavourable living conditions of adults from the lower socio-economic strata is a sine qua non for success.

(iv) Participant-instructor ratio

Effectiveness of functional literacy training depends to a large extent on a favourable participant-instructor ratio.

(b) Method and Materials (Unesco, 1976e, pp. 141, 166 - 170)

(i) EWLP's experience emphasized the fact that adult learning is facilitated by group interaction and that the potential of peer teaching among class members has not yet been fully recognized and fruitfully explored.

(ii) EWLP also succeeded in showing the value of practical demonstrations and experimental "learning by doing" in which "classroom" learning was often shifted to demonstration plots, fields for actual production (e.g. the Tanzanian "shamba"), factories and workshops of various kinds.

(iii) In spite of numerous transcription, duplication and other problems in countries with several national languages, EWLP firmly established the principle that the most effective literacy teaching can only be done through the mother-tongue.

(iv) The case for suitable literacy primers and follow-up material has already been stated.

(v) Rural newspapers for new literates in the Tanzanian EWLP project showed that in addition to communication flowing from the top down as well as from the bottom up, provision for horizontal communication among new literates proved to be a most fruitful experiment.

(c) Timing of programmes (Unesco, 1976e, pp. 170 - 172)

(i) The best time of the day proved to be during work-hours and it is urged that all countries follow as far as possible the Tanzanian example, entitling all salaried persons to use one paid hour per day for educational purposes.

(ii) Programmes should be adapted to the agricultural calendar, avoiding a large percentage of absenteeism during planting and harvesting seasons. For obvious reasons, long breaks without any teaching or demonstration activities should, however, also be avoided. Once again, the Tanzanian method described in the next chapter may prove to be a good example.

(iii) Session lengths should neither be too short nor too long. Considering the factor of fatigue and the necessity of maintaining sustained interest, a two-hour session seems to be rather long.

(iv) Spacing of lessons is an important factor. Normally two lessons per week should allow sufficient time for assimilation of content between lessons and at the same time be sufficiently intense to enable learners to see quicker results - an important factor for maintaining learner interest. To those who made the mistake of rushing the programme, EWLP's experience sounds the warning "that the tortoise may be more likely than the hare to cross the finishing-line first".

(d) Partnership in evaluation

EWLP's experience shows that evaluation should be adapted to local customs as far as possible and be done in partnership with the national decision-makers.

(e) Cost and expenditure (Unesco, 1976e, pp. 138 - 140)

By deliberately avoiding the use of expensive educational media and unnecessary capital expenditure on buildings, leading to the search for cheaper educational plant which would be more adaptable to the local conditions of poor countries, the EWLP experiments acted as a counterbalance to the show-off mentality and tendency in many developing countries, and proved the possibility of launching literacy campaigns without too much financial concern. This lesson was particularly demonstrated in the Tanzanian campaign which rejected the use of television and expensive buildings, while several poor EWLP countries were making heavy capital expenditure on television and other expensive educational media for limited audiences.

(f) Formulation of basic principles

The EWLP experiments and research work resulted in the evolvement of some very important principles, like the principles of functionality, intersectorial cooperation, partnership, integration, selectivity and intensity, which should form the basis of all literacy and adult education work and, as such, will be fully discussed in Part II of this report.

(g) Change and national endeavour
(Cf Bataille, 1976, pp. 32, 36: Unesco, 1976e, pp. 122 - 123, 131 - 133)

Finally, two important concepts evolved from the Experimental World Literacy Programme:

(i) Functional literacy and change: The most crucial EWLP lesson is that literacy programmes are only functional when according importance to economic growth as well as social, cultural and environmental change: change in outlook, attitudes and the conditions and way of life.

(ii) International nourishment for national endeavour and innovation: Closely associated with the change of attitude for improving their conditions and way of life was the desire for education manifesting itself in some EWLP countries. After the completion of the Experimental Programme it was clear that the experiments had succeeded in sparkling national enthusiasm for extended and intensified literacy activities in some countries, notably in Tanzania, Algeria and Iran. In this regard EWLP experience stresses the importance of international co-operation and nourishment for national endeavour and innovation, aiding national policy-makers to generate their own innovations in literacy and other educational areas. The aim should be to aid and not to spoon-feed or replace national endeavour - to help those in need to help themselves.

4.7. SELECTED LITERACY STRATEGY SUPPLEMENTED BY NATIONAL MASS LITERACY CAMPAIGNS, WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO TANZANIA

However valuable the Experimental World Literacy Programme might have been in drawing world attention to the growing problem of illiteracy and in offering most valuable suggestions and recommendations for future literacy activities from an examination of the outcome of the experimental programme, these selected literacy experiments could only affect a very small proportion of the millions of illiterates in the world and should be more widely diffused by being supplemented or followed up by national mass literacy campaigns in order to serve the purpose of paving the way for a world campaign for the eradication of illiteracy. It was, however, found that this latter objective was not achieved, particularly not in Africa, notable exceptions being the governments of Tanzania and Guinea, and in some measure Algeria and Sudan, which converted Unesco's selective World Literacy Programme strategy into nation-wide mass literacy campaigns, whereas most of the other African governments remained indifferent or selective (Bowers, 1976, p. 34). The most significant scheme was that of Tanzania which attracted world-wide attention.

In spite of numerous problems, a considerable degree of success has been reported for the Tanzanian radio study group campaigns which were carried out simultaneously and in collaboration with the EWLP and continued on a nation-wide scale when Unesco's experimental programme had ended. Hall and Dodds reported (1974, pp. 23, 42-43) that Tanzania's 1970 election campaign had succeeded in reaching the people and in arousing civic interest in nearly all areas of the country by making use of existing political and other organizations and the country's own resources. This was also the case with the 1973 radio study group "Man is Health" campaign which resulted in an average of 20 per cent increase in knowledge of vital health practices amongst two million Tanzanian citizens involved in the campaign, and caused a vast increase in the building and use of latrines all over the country - a practical achievement of which few other educational campaigns could boast, emphasizing particularly the success of Tanzania's strategy of involving the people in the discussion of the development plans for their own living conditions (Hall & Dodds, 1974, p.48).

One of the most exemplary developments to be especially noted for literacy campaigns in other African countries for which failures have been reported, is found in the Tanzanian inter-ministerial sponsorship, vesting the overall responsibility for adult education in a Ministry of Community and National Culture linking up closely with the Ministries of Education, Agriculture, Health, Commerce and Labour, all directly or indirectly concerned with different aspects of adult education in raising the literacy level of the people and furthering the socio-economic development of the country (Agyekum, 1973, pp. 65 - 66). Recent reports from Tanzania also indicate that the success of the national mass literacy campaign is being greatly facilitated by the TANU network of party cells, reaching to every ten families, through which literacy groups choose their own teachers and send them for training (Bowers, 1976, pp. 37 - 38).

But this is not the full perspective on the Tanzanian scene. Not yet. More will have to come in the following chapters: a fuller assessment of the positive as well as the negative results of the Tanzanian literacy and development campaigns, and the guidelines to be drawn from these for future action.

CHAPTER 5

PRACTICAL EXPRESSION OF PRINCIPLES AND ILLUSTRATION OF PROGRAMS WITH REGARD TO RECENT TRENDS OF LITERACY AND DEVELOPMENT WORK IN AFRICA

5.1. AFRICA AND THE "DECLARATION OF PERSEPOLIS"

(Cf. Bataille, 1976, pp. 243 - 245, 263 - 266, 273 - 277; Unesco, 1976c, p. 65)

The International Symposium for Literacy held in Persepolis, Iran, 3 - 8 September 1975, was the result of a proposal by the Government of Iran and supported by the General Conference of Unesco at its 18th session in Paris, October - November 1974, to take stock of the evolution of adult literacy work during the last ten years and to suggest strategies for broadening and intensifying literacy and development campaigns in the years to come. Before the Symposium the principle that all literacy work must be linked to and integrated with development schemes had already been firmly established. At the end of the Symposium a Declaration was adopted, known as the Declaration of Persepolis (1975), and with the African continent reasonably well represented at the Symposium by the Ministers of Education of seven African countries (Algeria, Egypt, Morocco, Rwanda, Somalia, Sudan and Tanzania), this Declaration of principles has a direct practical relevance to the development of literacy work in Africa in the preceding years.

The Declaration is added as Annexure B to this report and the underlining was done by the author in order to draw special attention to certain clauses relating strongly to the following sections of this chapter and to be specially noted for purposes of this study.

5.2. NOTABLE FEATURES OF LITERACY ACTION IN AFRICA DURING THE 1966 - 1976 DECADE

(Unesco Secretariat, 1976a, pp. 15 - 21; Hurly, 1977, p. 9; Adult education and development, March 1977, p.12).

In spite of innumerable problems in the development of literacy work in Africa during the period under consideration, successes have been achieved in some countries in the practical expression of fundamental principles, the most notable being the following:

5.2.1. Institutions and schools of education promoting literacy studies

(a) New institutions at national or regional level were established in several countries for purposes of promoting literacy studies by providing assistance in literacy research and planning, training, implementation and evaluation, for example:

- the Arab States Literacy Organization in Cairo, Egypt;
- the Society for the Promotion of Adult Literacy in Africa at Nairobi, Kenya;
- the African Adult Education Association at the Ahmed Bello University of Nigeria;
- the Regional Council for Adult Education and Literacy in Africa in Lomé, Togo

(b) Many university schools of education in Africa and Asia as well as in the Americas and Europe have organized courses in literacy and/or sponsored literacy studies by means of research and publications. Noteworthy examples are i.a. the Universities of Dar-es-Salaam in Tanzania, Ibadan in Nigeria, Teheran (Iran), Indiana (USA), Reading (Britain) and Nice (France).

(c) Courses in literacy have also been included in the curricula of Teachers' Colleges of several African states.

(d) At the Dar-es-Salaam Conference on Adult Education and Development in June, 1976, it was decided that all Adult Education institutions should be mass-based and community-based and that their education should be development education.

5.2.2. Legislative Action

Some countries have taken legislative action for promoting literacy. The following should be particularly noted:

(a) Laws making it compulsory for adult illiterates to attend literacy classes were promulgated in various African countries, e.g. in Libya, Sudan, C.A.R., Mali and others but were perhaps too ambitious to be enforced in most of these countries.

(b) More important was the legislation in some countries compelling enterprises to invest a part of their profits in literacy programs for their personnel, notably in Egypt and the Congo.

(c) Recent laws requiring literate adults to assist in the education of their illiterate fellow-countrymen were adopted in Ethiopia, Somalia and two Latin American countries.

5.2.3. Governmental co-operation

Following the Tanzanian example, several African governments, notably Gabon and Senegal, have vested the responsibility for their functional literacy action jointly and co-operatively in more than one government department.

5.2.4. Non-governmental contributions and local participation

It is reported in Bataille's Unesco publication, A Turning Point for Literacy (1976), that there has been a continuing contribution of non-governmental organizations and local participation with regard to literacy activities in the past decade:

(a) As in the past, religious bodies and Christian associations have made a continuously growing contribution to literacy, summarised as follows: "Indeed in many countries the first alphabets were developed by religious teachers, the first manuscripts were religious texts, the first books to be translated and printed were often religious books, the first schools were established by religious ministers, and the first purpose of literacy was conceived as religious teaching" (Cf Bataille, 1976, p. 17).

(b) Women's organizations, students' teams and youth organizations, trade unions, co-operatives and various voluntary agencies and social leaders have been initiating and planning, sponsoring and/or implementing literacy activities at national and local level, devoting their time and energy to motivational meetings and lectures, the promotion of study and research work, etc. Some examples of such organizations in Africa are the TANU Youth League in Tanzania, the Tunisian Women's Organization and the Guides Association in Benin.

(c) Co-ordination of the various non-governmental organizations at international level is provided by their International Federations such as the International Women's Council, the Y.W.C.A., Y.M.C.A., Caritas International and the World Labour Confederation.

(d) An innovative change in the last decade which has found significant practical expression in the Tanzanian literacy campaigns has been the active involvement and participation of illiterate adults in the process of their own education. In fact, "There has been, during the recent past, at national and international levels, a growing acceptance of the idea that literacy programmes will be more effective if they are planned from the bottom and are built on community self-determination ..... The Tanzanian case is particularly interesting; its participatory approach was based on a local popular institution: the Ujamaa Village, a small democratically managed rural unit which assumed ..... direct responsibility for planning and implementing literacy activities, greatly contributing to the success of the national literacy effort" (Unesco Secretariat, 1976a pp. 20 - 21).

5.2.5. Literacy in vernacular languages

During the period under discussion the practice of launching functional literacy campaigns linked to development in the vernacular languages had already been firmly established. More details with regard to problems experienced, ways and means of overcoming these problems and valuable pioneering done in some countries like Mali in this field will be given in Part II of the report.

5.3. PRACTICAL ILLUSTRATION OF LITERACY PROGRAMS LINKED TO DEVELOPMENT IN TANZANIA

5.3.1. Programs in progress (Mundie, 1973, pp. 34 - 35)

In view of the relatively successful Election (1970-) and "Man is Health" (1973-) campaigns in Tanzania there seems to be a world-wide interest in the nation-wide functional literacy projects in progress in this country linking literacy to development and seemingly supplying an answer to the question what incentive there is for a man of fifty to learn to read and write. Tanzania's answer has been to launch campaigns, with Unesco's assistance, for teaching illiterates through basic primers on development projects such as better methods of growing cotton, rice-growing, the care of bananas and tobacco, cattle-farming and the fishing-industry in the Indian Ocean, the fundamentals of reading, writing and numeracy.. Adult literacy instruction was made a compulsory extra-curricular activity for primary school teachers as well as for certain civil servants, and the integration of literacy teaching with vocational training would have to be supervised by specially trained personnel. The scheme was launched on the basis of three two-hour classes per week for a period of approximately 18 months, which was originally conceived to be sufficient to bring the adult illiterates to approximately the 4th grade level but was soon found to be insufficient, ultimately leading to a lowering of standards on which we shall report under sub-section 5.4 below.

5.3.2 Materials and principles in practice (cotton project) (Unesco, 1976b, pp. 106-108).

(a) The material for functional literacy teaching in the cotton sector consists of three booklets, a series of collective and individual cards (syllables, words, sentences and letters) and some two dozen posters for enlargements of illustrations in the reader. The three booklets are:

(i) An instructor's guide to cotton-growing, providing the instructor with the necessary technical knowledge on the subject and for performing the practical demonstrations;

(ii) An instructor's manual (guide) in the use of the instruction material and teaching methods;

(iii) The illiterate's booklet for integrated instruction in reading, writing and numeracy (from 1 to 100), containing texts and illustrations relevant to the problem of cotton-growing.

(b) It should be noted that vocational training (cotton-growing), reading, writing and numeracy are not independent subjects but are taught concurrently, the problem studied (how to grow better cotton) affording an occasion for learning and practising the symbols of written verbal and mathematical language for purposes of reading, writing, numeration and calculation. In this way the process of learning to read, write and calculate is not learning for nothing but learning for job efficiency, rendering it of practical significance in the illiterate's everyday life and experience.

(c) Throughout the teaching process, attention is concentrated on recognizing the whole word in its global form, and not on a letter-by-letter identification by the reader (as for example in the Laubach method), which would not only complicate this form of integrated teaching, but distract the attention of the learner to such an extent that the dual objective of teaching literacy in relation to vocational training will hardly be achieved. The "Gestalt" theory teaches that the "whole" is perceived before the "parts" and in order to facilitate this rather difficult integrated form of teaching, linking literacy teaching to a development project, this (Gestalt) method was found to be the best guarantee for success. The way in which it has been applied in Tanzania is illustrated in the next sub-section.

5.3.3 Learning and training programs illustrated (cotton project)

(Unesco, 1976b, pp. 81, 106-108, 147-150).

(a) Survey of lessons

The program for the cotton project consists of 26 lessons in the illiterate's booklet, of which 22 relate to cotton-growing, while the remaining four (numbers 4, 16, 20 and 26) offer practice in literacy skills. Examples of the subjects covered are the following (number of lesson is given in brackets): Cotton is Wealth (Lesson 1), Soil Preparation (2), Use of Fertilizer (5), Sowing at the Right Time (8), Thinning Out (11), Weeding of Cotton (12), Destruction of Insects (17), Treatment of Growing Cotton (18, 19), Picking and Marketing (22, 24), Clearing of Ground (25). Numeration is taught concurrently with reading and writing from lesson 4 to lesson 17.

(b) Examples of programs explained

The aim initially being threefold, viz. to learn to recognize words for reading, to practise writing every new word, and at the same time to learn how to grow better cotton, only 4-5 words are introduced at a time, e.g. (in Lesson 1):

pamba ni mali (cotton is wealth)
pamba huleta pesa (cotton brings money)

Obviously the initial pace must be very slow: there must be plenty of time for learning to recognize the different words and practising their writing. A careful study of the first part of the program will show, however, that the following achievements may already be possible at the end of the fourth lesson:

(i) The illiterate adult has learnt to recognize words like the following in his booklet and from the word cards shown to him, and to practise their writing:

nouns - pamba (cotton), pesa (money), shamba (field), matuta (ridge), hatua (step), mali (wealth);

verbs - huleta (bring), parua (clean, weed), ni (is);

conjunction - ya (of)

(ii) Though few in numbers at this stage, these words can, however, be geared for constructing a large number of sentences from the word cards for purposes of reading (recognition) and writing; moreover - and most important of all - for reading and writing a large number of sentences related

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to their daily activities and work-orientation: cotton-growing!

(iii) Although not specifically indicated as such in the program, the powerful psychological factor of word patterns being registered in the mind of the learner and escalating from a small number of recognizable words to the recognition of many previously "unseen" words of more or less the same pattern, must not be overlooked at this stage.

(iv) A small number of recognizable words can now be broken up and grouped into a larger number of recognizable syllables with analogous elements and used by the learner to form and write new words which are known in the spoken language but have never been seen in written language. The following list of syllables has, for obvious reasons, been grouped differently by the author from the original program text:

pa sha ma ha pa ma ya

nu tu tu ru

pe le li ni

mba sa ta ta a a

(c) Exercises and active procedures for the teaching of reading and writing

(i) The word cards and syllable cards play an important role in this exercise. The word cards are mixed and the learner must find the words asked for, group the words containing the same sounds, construct new sentences from the cards available, etc. The same type of exercises are done with the syllable cards but for purposes of sound didactic progressions, exercises on word cards and syllable cards are first done separately before the cards are inter-mixed. Construction of new words, followed up by the construction of new sentences from the syllable cards, will prove to be a profitable exercise.

(ii) The acquisition of the manual technique of writing is not to be seen as an independent subject, but as an integrated activity, simultaneously fitting into the overall activity of learning to read and training for development. To define it more clearly, every new word or sentence constructed from the syllable or word cards must immediately be practised in writing, and the entire exercise of reading and writing must afford an opportunity for expressing ideas involved in the study of the problem, i.e. cotton-growing, rice-growing, cattle-farming, etc.

(d) Numeracy and the introduction to mathematics

Like learning to read and write, learning arithmetic is not learning for nothing but will only satisfy the learner in the event of its becoming a meaningful work- or job-oriented tool satisfying his personal needs. Arithmetic teaching must therefore always be based on the actual problem-situations encountered in the training activities, e.g. measurements and calculation of lengths, surfaces, money, weights (e.g. fertilizers), capacity, time, etc.

5.3.4 Progression phases

(Unesco, 1976b, pp. 94-95).

The first phase is the study of the problem, the second the action phase, and it should be remembered that both literacy training and the introduction of elementary mathematics must always be incorporated in both of these phases.

(a) Study of the problem

Three stages form part of every lesson. The first is to bring the illiterate participants to a real understanding of the problem, not by direct statement, but by means of suggestion in the form of precise questions (the question stage). If the problem is understood and seen to correspond to the real needs of the participants, they will be in a receptive state for the second or real learning stage which must always be a discussion (and never a lecture) stage in which all the individual participants are actively involved in discussing the problem. The third stage is a group activity stage, leading the group as a whole to put forward one or more solutions of their own.

It is not specifically stated in Unesco's "Practical Guide ..." but should be noted here that posters may serve as an indispensable starting point for the first (question and problem-understanding) stage, and that the actual reading, writing and calculation exercises (introduction of booklet and cards) must form an integral part of the second (problem-discussion) stage from the very outset, that is, while the participants are in a receptively motivated state, and should never be left to chance to form an anti-climax at the end of the lesson. This procedure, however, calls for much skill and ingenuity on the part of the teacher/instructor - one of the reasons why so many good programs have stranded on bad teaching!

(b) The action phase which is the period of application of principles learnt and should lead to the adoption of new behaviour patterns and practices, usually comes up against the inevitable problem of resistance to change when the new ideas do not fall into line with the traditional practices and values of the group, and should be handled with sympathetic understanding, wisdom and tact, failing which, the whole effort may be null and void. Here again, much will depend upon the attitude of the teachers and instructors. This phase may immediately follow on the study phase or after a longer period of groping with various problems. In the cotton project it is reserved for the second six-month's period as described under section 5.3.6 below.

5.3.5 Fundamental practical procedures for the group-leadership method

(Unesco, 1976b, pp. 164-168).

(a) Group activities

It should be remembered at all times -

(i) that the illiterate is not a pupil but an active participant in a group training activity, taking an active part in his own training;

(ii) that the instructor is, in consequence, not a "schoolmaster" teaching his pupils, but a "master of ceremonies" in a group activity and one of the group.

(b) The group leader-instructor

It is clear from the above paragraph that the good instructor for a literacy class is not the one who can "teach" and "hold the scene" in the traditional sense of the word, but "one who knows how to keep silent. He should not 'do the talking' but 'trigger' talk and action so that each person shall have the feeling that he has a role useful to the community ..." (Unesco, 1976b,

p. 168). His role is to be a good group leader (not driver) in a group-leadership method: to organize the group activities, assemble the participants, explain the objectives of the work session, stimulate the discussions e.g. by means of directive questions, to be at hand as "an authoritative source of information" in problem situations, etc.

(c) Homogeneous grouping of participants

One of the tasks of the group leader being to organize the group activities, he should never lose sight of the principle that, when dealing with adults, the formation of homogeneous groups with regard to socio-occupational background, literacy levels, and in most cases even the sexes of the participants is basic to the concept of functional literacy.

5.3.6 Considerations of time and duration of the cotton project

(Unesco, 1976b, pp. 165, 112).

(a) It is obvious that allowance will have to be made for local conditions and circumstances in drawing up the time-table, e.g. climatic and working conditions affecting the time of the day chosen for literacy courses (whether or not literacy courses are included in the working hours), dispersion or concentration of the population, etc.

(b) The program dealing with cotton-growing is divided into three six-month's periods:

(i) The first period of six months (May-October) forms the first or study phase in the cotton project, combining vocational training with literacy instruction in the 26 lessons as described in paragraphs 5.3.3 and 5.3.4 above. During this period teachers and extension workers also organize indoor demonstrations in the classroom, but normally no field work is done during these months.

(ii) During the following six months (November-April) we have the action phase described in paragraph 5.3.4 (b) above, when classes are discontinued and replaced by practical work in the cotton fields where the workers have to spend most of their time while the cotton-growing season is at its peak. Most of this practical field work is done under the guidance of the literacy instructors and agricultural extension workers. Occasionally, however, every class has to come back to its own class-shamba (plot or ground) during this period for purposes of demonstration on a smaller and more comprehensible scale, particularly in view of the psychological factor of resistance to change which is usually experienced during this phase.

(iii) During the last six months the classes start up again and are devoted to more advanced work in the particular project field (cotton-growing), as well as complementary courses in housing, civics etc. for purposes of general development.

5.3.7 Cotton project pattern and other projects

Basically, though with the necessary adaptations according to varying conditions and circumstances, all other vocational training projects follow the cotton project example for giving practical expression to fundamental principles.

5.4 REALITIES AND PROSPECTS: THE TANZANIAN CAMPAIGNS IN CRITICAL PERSPECTIVE WITH A VIEW TO LITERACY WORK IN SOUTHERN AFRICA

There are many rosy reports on the Tanzanian literacy campaigns which seem to have gripped the imagination of the world, particularly in view of this country's "Education for Self-Reliance" slogan and the imaginative steps taken to link literacy training to development on a scale which is unprecedented in African Third World countries. Again, there can be no doubt about the educational justification for sound methods adopted to give practical expression to fundamental educational principles in Tanzania's literacy campaigns.

In judging the results by more than a mere superficial evaluation it will, however, become clear that, however laudable the efforts and relative successes of these campaigns, there are still many thorny problems - in fact, the educational ambition of a developing country should keep pace with reality. Mistakes have been and are still being made which should and could be avoided by more effective precautionary measures in similar development campaigns for the Black States and peoples of Southern Africa. Some of these mistakes have already been intimated in the foregoing sections and will be dealt with more fully in Part II of this report. At this stage the following should, however, be pointed out:

(a) In spite of many favourable reports on the Tanzanian literacy campaigns which may rightfully serve as an example to the African continent, it would be unwise not to take cognizance of the fact that Tanzania has erroneously taken an equivalent of two years of primary education as the norm for adult literacy, with the result that the lowest success rate in the EWLP reading evaluation test was recorded for this country:

38 per cent, as against the unweighted average of 71 per cent for the entire EWLP project.[1]

(b) Statistical evidence contained in Annexure A of this report, though 3 to 6 years old, as most statistics for African countries are, is not very flattering: a high illiteracy rate (which would have followed from the previous paragraph), a net school enrolment of only 26,4% of the primary school-age group and 24% of the secondary school-age group, as well as one of the lowest figures for third level enrolment and skilled manpower in Africa. There is much evidence that Tanzania must still be far from its cherished ideal of making the whole population literate by 1976.

(c) The lack of skilled manpower must be seen as a very strong negative factor with regard to community development. Contrary to some favourable reports that production has been doubled or even trebled in some pilot project areas, this did not seem to affect the country as a whole, the fact being that there are many news reports today that Tanzania is virtually on the verge of bankruptcy.

(d) The final conclusion is that a good functional literacy program is a very important but by far not the only guarantee for success; there are far more factors involved, most of which would have been clear from the preceding chapters and sections of this chapter. The final summary will be given in Chapter 6.

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[1] Chapter 4.6.8 (a).

CHAPTER 6

SELECTED OBSERVATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 RETROSPECT

6.1.1 Fundamental facts, principles and problems relating to the subject of investigation have been stated in this part of the report and some solutions and relevant practical illustrations of problems and principles involved have been offered from knowledge and experience on the subject of adult education, whereas the detailing of most of the practical procedures will be done in Part II. Much statistical evidence had to go into the report for the purpose of the study.

6.1.2 Reports on a considerable amount of international experience on the subject have come to us through this study, offering invaluable guidelines for future adult education and literacy action, especially with regard to functional literacy programs for illiterate adults who have received very little or no formal school education, and non-formal part-time education for adults who are in need of further education, vocationally or academically, for purposes of job-upgrading (mainly technical or industrial training), improving their general standards of living and/or for rendering greater professional services to their communities. To be particularly noted in this regard is the experience of the International World Literacy Campaign (EWLP; Cf. Chapter 4).

6.1.3 Some of the most significant observations and recommendations selected from the preceding chapters of the report are indicated below.

6.2 DESIGNATION

6.2.1 In educationally developed countries and communities adult education is usually conceived as continued learning or further education of a non-formal, part-time character in adult life in order to widen the horizons for cultural, avocational, vocational or professional purposes (Chapters 1.1, 2.2.c, 2.2.e, 2.3.b, 2.6.a, etc.); in underdeveloped communities and developing countries, for example in those with a high illiteracy rate, it is, however, primarily conceived as basic education in development projects (functional literacy) for the underdeveloped and educationally backward masses above 15 years of age - the generally accepted norm for adulthood in more primitive, underdeveloped societies - in order to improve the socio-economic standards and conditions of living and to generate the necessary change in outlook and attitudes necessary for development (Chapters 2.1, 2.2.f, 2.5, 3.1.b, 3.6, etc.).

6.2.2 It is the adults and not the children of today who hold the present destiny of Africa in their hands; Africa cannot wait a generation to mobilize its human resources for tasks of national development (Chapter 2.5.b).

6.2.3 The history of the folk high schools in a highly industrialized country like West Germany proved the powerful influence of a well-organized adult education movement in the remarkable recovery of an utterly impoverished and destroyed nation after two annihilating World Wars (Chapter 2.2.d).

Recommendation No. 1:

(a) This report has clearly stated the case for adult education as a universal need in all countries and for all communities, i.e. both for educationally well developed countries/communities and for underdeveloped or "developing" countries.

(b) Non-formal adult education activities such as part-time extension programs for improved methods of agriculture, vocational training on the job, functional literacy programs, correspondence courses, etc., and provision for informal learning facilities such as clubs, libraries, and the distribution of vernacular newspapers, agricultural magazines etc., are advocated for this purpose (Chapters 1.1, 2.6.d, 4.2.3.g, 4.4).

Recommendation No. 2:

(a) The training of adults who are already on the job, is a much quicker way to increase the productivity and speed up development in less developed countries and communities than to wait more than ten years for the potential of school education (Chapter 2.5.b).

(b) It should therefore be national policy to spend a large proportion of the educational budgets on adult education, particularly in national and/or local communities with a large percentage of underdeveloped human potential.

Recommendation No. 3:

(a) Adult education in the form of part-time functional literacy and extension programs should be enforced as a compulsory measure for the underdeveloped rural populations in developing countries which are faced with the responsibility of producing food for the nation. This matter is regarded to be so urgent for speeding up community development that some educational planners have even come with the rather shocking recommendation of temporarily slowing down the quantitative expansion of formal school education in underdeveloped countries which have to operate on stringent educational budgets, in order to enable them to concentrate the maximum of their energy and resources on providing agricultural education for their adult populations (Chapter 2.5.b).

(b) It should not be overlooked that adult education has also proved to be an economically as well as educationally advantageous proposition with a much lower unit cost (per person) than that of primary school education (Chapter 4.6.8: "Results" of the Experimental World Literacy Programme).

6.3 BASIC PROBLEMS OF UNDERDEVELOPED COUNTRIES: HUMAN RESOURCES; ILLITERACY IN RELATION TO SCHOOL EDUCATION; POPULATION GROWTH; MENTALITY

6.3.1 The first and most basic problem of underdeveloped countries or national communities is the underdevelopment of their human resources at first (primary), second and third level education (Chapters 1.3, 3.3), resulting in a 60 per cent illiteracy rate in Third World countries and over 70 per cent in Africa (Chapters 3.1.b, 1.4, 3.3.d), and leaving such countries badly in need of skilled manpower for purposes of development (Note Chapters 1.3, 2.5.b, 3.3, and particularly Annexure A for Africa).

Recommendation No. 4:

In order to achieve rapid economic and social development, underdeveloped countries and communities must somehow immediately produce a skilled and informed adult population. Capital investment alone will help them nothing if human skills are wanting; they will have to start educating their illiterate adults and providing further education to their literate adults in terms of Recommendations 1 to 3 above without any further delay.

6.3.2 Illiteracy has been identified in this study as one of the major obstacles to development and as a major cause of poverty, the map of world illiteracy coinciding closely with the map of world poverty. Revolutionary governments like the USSR and Vietnam realised that illiterates cannot build a communist state; that literacy should be proclaimed among the first necessities for building a strong, prosperous and independent country (Chapter 4.2, 4.5). This also applies to democratic countries in which the man in the street has to carry a greater degree of responsibility (Chapter 2.5.f). This study has, however, expounded a sad state of illiteracy, underdevelopment, poverty and plight in the African continent. Again, the limited material and underdeveloped human resources of these countries make a massive or full-time expansion at primary, secondary and post-secondary levels impossible, perpetuating the vicious circle of limited resources, illiteracy and sustained underdevelopment (Cf. Chapter 2.5.b).

Recommendation No. 5:

Education is the only door out of their desperate plight.

6.3.3 (a) It has become clear that literacy or illiteracy primarily begins with primary school education (Chapter 3.3); that whereas adult education (literacy campaigns and development programs) must be seen as the only remedy for the present plight of these countries, prevention is to be regarded better than cure for future policy.

(b) According to the Addis Ababa blueprint for future development in Africa (1961) the targets set were i.a. a 5 per cent net annual increase of the current first-grade population to a 100 per cent net first-grade enrolment in 1971,[1] and a universal (100 per cent) primary education on the African continent in 1980 (Chapters 2.3.c and 3.3.c).

(c) The 1972 figures (the latest available at the time of writing) showed, however, that out of the 44 African countries included in this study, 14 had a net enrolment below 30 per cent for the age-group 6-11 years (one below 10%!), 10 between 30 and 50 per cent, 13 between 50 and 70 per cent, and only 7 above 70 per cent, of which only 3 had a 100 per cent enrolment (Cf. Annexure A).

Recommendation No. 6:

(a) Expansion of the primary school enrolment figures to a 100 per cent net enrolment of the 6-11 year old school-age group in a compulsory school system is the ideal to be achieved as soon as possible, especially in areas which already have a high percentage of school attendance.

(b) Countries with a low percentage of net enrolments for their primary school-age populations should plan for a percentage increase (e.g. 10 to 15 per cent) of their current first-grade school-age populations per year until the ideal of a 100 per cent primary school-age enrolment is achieved.

(c) The foregoing method will, however, entail careful planning in which nothing can be left to chance. It would be wise, first to launch such a scheme in priority areas in which the collaboration of the local communities can be obtained and to enforce compulsory school attendance for at least four years for all first-grade school pupils who have enrolled under this scheme (See Recommendation No. 9).

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[1] The 1971 figures showed that the actual achievement for that year was far short of the target.

6.3.4 Many mistakes were made in African and other developing countries in their efforts to expand their school systems. The following figured prominently in the "Diagnosis of the problem of illiteracy and its causes and cure ..." in Chapter 3:

(a) Statistical evidence disclosed the problem of wastage in the form of an alarmingly high percentage of repeaters and school leavers in African countries (Chapter 3.3.b).

(b) As much as 40 per cent of the money spent on education in poorer countries was a misdirected educational investment in early school leavers who will soon relapse into illiteracy (Chapter 3.1).

(c) The unfavourable and often worsening pupil-teacher ratio varying from 40 to 78 pupils per teacher in approximately 66 per cent of the African countries unfavourably affected the quality of the educational coverage (Chapter 3.5; Annexure A).

(d) In their drive for quantitative expansion, many African countries sacrificed the quality of their education (Chapter 3.5).

(e) The training and quality of the teachers and irrelevant courses were more negative factors to be added to this list (Chapter 3.5) - the irrelevant courses referring mainly to African systems based on inherited foreign systems not adapted to local conditions (Chapter 2.7).

Recommendation No. 7:

The quality of the education given to the African child is regarded to be as important for purposes of national development as the actual numbers being given an education. It would be a grave error if the Black nations of Southern Africa were to repeat the mistakes of Africa in their efforts to expand their educational systems quantitatively without regard for quality. Elimination of undue wastage in the form of repeaters and early school leavers, the quality and qualifications (training) of the teachers, and the maintenance of a favourable pupil-teacher ratio of not more than approximately 40 pupils per teacher for the immediate future and approximately 30 as the ultimate ideal (cf. for example Annexure A for typical Western/industrialized countries) are some of the essentially important factors for bearing out the quality of the education and should not be sacrificed in a mere drive for quantity in which "more" could mean "worse" (Cf. Gavin Jones: Chapter 3.5).

Recommendation No. 8:

As for the training and retraining of teachers with a view to improving the quantity as well as the quality of the educational coverage, the following may be noted:

(a) The Vietnamese experience in offering extended training courses at the teacher training colleges to candidates with a relatively moderate degree of school education and shorter courses to those with a more advanced school education, emphasizes a sound principle and practice, although it must be pointed out that the low standards of entrance requirements for the training colleges in that country are completely at variance with civilized standards for the teaching profession (Cf. Chapter 4.2.3.k).

(b) EWLP's experience with regard to the training and retraining of instructors for literacy and development work (Chapter 4.6.9.a) can also be suitably adjusted to training practices for school teachers: shorter and intensive initial training courses followed periodically by compulsory retraining sessions may prove to be more profitable in the long run than a long initial training without retraining.

9.3.5 Statistical evidence submitted in this report showed that all countries and national communities in which the normal school-age population(6-15 years) constitutes more than approximately 20 per cent of the total population (which is the approximate figure for a typical Western country), will find it very difficult, if not almost impossible, to provide the necessary funds, facilities and teaching staff for enforcing a good quality of compulsory universal education for all their school-age children, particularly if such countries/communities are still in a state of economic underdevelopment forcing them to operate on stringent educational budgets; and again, that unless present population trends change rapidly and radically, most of the African states and Black South African national groups in which the school-age population constitutes as much as 28 to 30 per cent or more of the total population, will either have to be in a state of dependency on others, or to shoulder an unequalled and unendurable burden to provide schooling for all their children (Chapters 1.5, 3.4).

Recommendation No. 9:

In spite of the above-mentioned problems of demography and economy with which most African governments and Black nations of the African subcontinent have to cope, the following should be regarded as the minimum educational standard to be achieved immediately: a compulsory school attendance of at least four years - which is the generally accepted minimum norm for literacy[1] - for all school-age children (See, however, Recommendation No. 6 (a) and 6 (b) above). No country can afford misdirected educational expenditure on early school leavers who will soon relapse into illiteracy.[2]

6.3.6 It has been statistically proved that one of the most crucial causes of illiteracy, backwardness, destitution and underdevelopment is to be found in the uncontrolled birth rates and population explosion outpacing the expansion of the primary school system in most developing countries, particularly in Africa which has the highest birth rate in the world, and leading to an alarming increase in the absolute number of illiterates in these countries, adversely affecting the resources needed for educating and feeding the ever-increasing hungry masses (Chapters 1.5, 3.2, 3.3, 3.4). This investigation has also illustrated (Chapter 3.5.b, 3.6.b, 3.4.e):

first - that the uncontrolled population growth has left most African governments in despair and completely at a loss to handle the situation, aggravating their problems of educational and socio-economic development to such an extent that drastic measures to stem the ever-rising tide and the generation of a new mentality have become more imperative than ever before;

second - that a rapid decline in fertility has had a favourable influence on educational progress, but that this influence will only be felt substantially after six to twelve years, owing to the time lag of six years between birth and primary school enrolment and twelve years for secondary school enrolment;

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[1] Chapters 3.3.d, 4.6.7.c Cf. for example Chapter 5.4 for the lowering of standards in Tanzania and the unfavourable results scored by that country in the EWLP reading evaluation test.

[2] Developing countries which are still in a position of economic distress, could perhaps resort to the following emergency measure: once a pupil has been enrolled at school, compulsory school attendance should be enforced for such a pupil for at least four years (Cf. Recommendation No. 6 (c) above).

third - that functional literacy programs have proved to have a favourable impact on family planning (Chapter 4.6.8.d).

Recommendation No. 10:

Where medical science has succeeded in drastically decreasing the death rates in the world, drastic measures will have to be taken immediately in most African countries to restore the balance by keeping their birth rates and population growth within reasonable limits, failing which, the race between education and catastrophe will be lost.

6.4 ADULT EDUCATION, DEVELOPMENT AND CHANGE

6.4.1 The lack of responsibility necessitating the generation of a new mentality does not only concern the uncontrolled birth rates and excessive population growth in developing countries, but has already been characterised by impartial observers in terms of the traditional state of mind in a more primitive order of living and thinking, i.e. resistance to innovation and change in the traditional social order; lack of initiative; self-complacency; the attitude of waiting to receive what his physical and social world gives him, without attempting to conquer and master his own world, and in this very process, to master and transform his own way of thinking and living (Chapters 1.6, 3.6).

Recommendation No. 11:

(a) Adult education must be a functional force creating motivation and structures for changing rural and urban societies, and must be organized "with the conscious intention of bringing about changes in information, knowledge, understanding or skills, appreciation and attitudes ... for the purpose of identifying and solving personal and community problems" (Chapter 2.1, 2.3.c).

(b) In order to generate the desired change, such programs should be organized for both literates (development programs, e.g. better farming methods, health practices etc.) and illiterates (literacy instruction combined with development projects).

(c) It follows from Observation 6.4.1 above that in the case of primitive, underdeveloped and illiterate societies, this change has to be a radical change, increasing men's "control over themselves, their own lives and the environment in which they live" (Chapter 2.5.d), and that all adult education and literacy programs should be ultimately "concerned with transforming mentalities and with encouraging the awakening of ... critical, constructive minds, capable of changing men's relationship with men and with nature" (Chapter 3.6: Teheran Symposium).

(d) It must be noted that before the stage is reached where the primitive society which is merely part of its world over which it has no control, has been turned into a civilized society which can make something of its own world and master and transform its own way of living, no real success in the eradication of illiteracy and underdevelopment can be reported (Chapter 3.6).

(e) The irrelevant courses to which observation 6.3.4(c) refers, calling for "new structures" in the form of a vital transformation of the education system from traditional schools to community training centres, schools as self-supported productive units and other related innovations recommended by Unesco, Kenneth King and others for underdeveloped countries (Chapter 2.6), will be fully discussed in Part II of this report.

6.5 ORGANIZATION AND PLANNING, MOBILIZATION AND MOTIVATION

Recommendation No. 12:

Ideology alone is not enough and must be backed up by a suitable organization. This is particularly the case in functional literacy programs which claim to be a method of improving the productive qualities of illiterate adults through the medium of instruction in reading and writing as an integral part of a wide variety of economic and social operations to cater for the various vocational needs of the participants (Chapter 4.2.3.m, 4.6.4.a).

Recommendation No. 13:

(a) Adult education must primarily be the responsibility of the state, in which regard the practice of inter-ministerial sponsorship and co-ordination vesting the responsibility for literacy and adult education jointly and co-operatively in different government departments linking up closely with one another, must be strongly recommended (Cf. for example Chapters 4.7, 5.2.3 and others).

(b) The role of a large number of voluntary private organizations, co-operatives and other non-governmental agencies initiating, sponsoring and/or implementing literacy and other adult education activities for upgrading the productivity and skills of those with little or no schooling should, however, not be overlooked (see examples: Chapters 5.2.4, 1.1), provided that all such non-governmental organizations should somehow be made responsible for all their adult education activities to a co-ordinating and authorizing State Education and/or Community Development Department which will also co-ordinate their work with that of the formal education system. Nothing can be left to chance: this report has proved the relative failure of haphazard, isolated and uncontrolled adult education work, and experience has shown that a well-structured and co-ordinated system of non-formal adult education is a necessity for success.

Recommendation No. 14:

(a) Literacy administration should, however, make provision for a sufficient degree of decentralization to involve the participants in the discussion and organization of development plans for their own living conditions (Chapter 4.3.a, 4.7).

(b) According to the Declaration of Persepolis, literacy is inseparable from participation: the illiterate should not be the object but the subject of the process whereby he becomes literate, and all literacy programs should be drawn up in consultation with those concerned (Cf. Annexure B). It is generally accepted today that literacy programs will be more effective if they are also planned from the bottom up and are built on community self-determination. To quote from Chapter 4.2.3.m. (Khôi): "The work must be carried out in accordance with a mass line, that is, the masses must be persuaded that literacy can benefit them as well as the country, that it is their job to implement literacy programmes, and that they should do so by relying mainly on their own forces (material and human) rather than on those of the state. This line therefore contrasts with the bureaucratic line, which depends on decisions taken at the summit, without the participation of those primarily concerned, and on completely external financing ... In other words, we are not concerned here with doing things for the masses, but rather with making them capable of carrying out the work themselves, finding the necessary resources from within their own environment, with a minimum of outside assistance" (Cf. also EWLP's experience: Chapter 4.6.9.b).

Recommendation No. 15:

The preceding recommendation (No. 14) applies, mutatis mutandis, to all forms of adult education work, and a People's (Adult) Education Organization could be formed for this purpose which should function in close partnership with the State Department concerned (cf. Chapter 2.3.b: modification).

Recommendation No. 16:

Some of the propaganda and mass mobilization methods which proved effective under revolutionary governments to exert pressure on illiterates and to mobilize students, teachers, civil servants etc. to volunteer for literacy work, can also be adapted for successful implementation in democratic countries (Cf. Chapter 4.2.1, 4.2.2.a, 4.2.3.d, 4.3.c).

Recommendation No. 17:

It stands to reason that a close collaboration between the various services and officers directly or indirectly concerned with adult education (state departments, literacy organizations of private associations and other non-governmental agencies, literacy and technical instructors e.g. agricultural extension workers, family planning officers etc.) must be carefully planned and co-ordinated (Chapter 4.4.a, 4.6.6.e).

Recommendation No. 18:

(a) In the field of literacy teaching a departmental co-ordination team of well-trained personnel would be required to initiate and organize the training as well as the supervision of the literacy teachers and instructors and to co-ordinate the work of the various services and officers (Chapter 4.4.a).

(b) The co-ordination team could also be required to do most of the spade work in initiating and supervising the organization with regard to the twelve steps in functional literacy method summarised in Chapter 4.6.5.

Recommendation No. 19:

The complexity of literacy work when linked to development having been clearly underlined by the Experimental World Literacy Programme, it follows that, irrespective of the important factor of local participation, the organization must be rigid enough to leave no scope for slackness and unprecision in local administration, lack of responsibility leading to delays in the delivery of necessary materials, lack of transportation, etc., which have been indicated as some of the problem areas hampering the promotion of adult literacy and development projects in the Experimental World Literacy Programme (Chapter 4.6.6).

6.6 MEDIA, MEASURES AND MATERIALS FOR LITERACY TEACHING AND TRAINING

Recommendation No. 20:

The recommendations of the Dar-es-Salaam Conference (1976) proclaiming all adult education to be mass-based and community-based development education, involving mass orientation and mass participation in order to address itself to the eradication of mass poverty, must be noted. For this purpose the Conference recommended the use of the multi-media network, particularly the radio, by means of which vast numbers of adults can be dealt with at minimum cost and with maximum efficiency (Chapter 2.2.f, 2.3.c).

Recommendation No. 21:

The principle that developing countries should mainly rely on their own resources for their development programs, clearly follows from Recommendation 14 which should be read with this recommendation. EWLP's recommendation with regard to international nourishment for national endeavour also stresses the aim to aid and not to spoon-feed or replace national endeavour - i.e., to help those in need to help themselves, but not to help them out of the frying-pan into the fire by doing everything for them (Chapter 4.6.9.g).

Recommendation No. 22:

It also follows from the above that the use of expensive educational media and unnecessary capital expenditure on buildings should be avoided. EWLP's experience proved the possibility of launching literacy campaigns without too much financial concern if cheaper educational materials were used which could be more suitably adapted to local conditions (Chapter 4.6.9.e). This investigation has shown that even in a highly industrialized country like West Germany, most of the adult education "Volkshochschulen" have no buildings of their own and have their classes scattered in school buildings, public libraries and other suitable places (Chapter 2.2).

Recommendation No. 23:

Homogeneous grouping according to occupation, educational background, age, sex etc. is a necessity for successful literacy work, and it should be noted that the effectiveness of functional literacy training depends to a large extent on a favourable instructor-participant ratio, preferably not more than 1 to 20/24 (Chapters 5.3.5.c, 4.6.9.a, 4.6.6.e).

Recommendation No. 24:

It is to be regarded as an essential precautionary measure first to identify the occupational groups and to adapt well-prepared literature and follow-up material accordingly so that both teachers and learners will know their goal (Chapter 4.4).

Recommendation No. 25:

Literacy materials - primers, instructors' guides, as well as follow-up readers - should not only be prepared before the campaign starts but also be tested out with representative groups before being released for use. Primers should be well-graded and suitably adjusted to the needs of adults. Follow-up material should include vernacular newspapers which should attract the interest of new literates both in content and in the size of the letters. To start a literacy campaign without having a sufficient supply of suitable reading material at hand, is to start a failure. Governments of developing countries may do well in following the Tanzanian example where the government ran a national campaign for obtaining suitable book manuscripts (Chapter 4.2.b, 4.4.a, 4.6.6.d). The Laubach method of training literacy writers which will be discussed in Part II of this study, may also be of assistance in this regard.

Recommendation No. 26:

It is recommended as a precautionary measure that a pilot scheme be carried out first before launching a mass literacy campaign, and that the literacy primer and other literacy materials be tested out with representative groups while this pilot scheme is in operation (Chapter 4.4.a).

Recommendation No. 27:

It should be noted from the experience of literacy work that no relapse into illiteracy has been reported where constant efforts are made to raise the educational level of the people through well-adapted follow-up material (books, newspapers, periodicals), libraries, group discussions, etc. (Cf. especially Chapter 4.2.3.g). EWLP experience has, however, proved that the opposite is equally true (Chapter 4.6.6.d).

6.7 ILLUSTRATION OF FUNCTIONAL LITERACY IN PRACTICE

6.7.1 It would have been clear from the experience in literacy work as depicted in the preceding chapters (Cf. especially Chapters 4.5, 4.6 and 5) that the illiterate's situation does not necessarily change when he is merely taught to read and write without receiving any instruction in a development project; that the low success rates of basic literacy campaigns in the non-communist world led to the search for a new formula of work-oriented or functional literacy, integrating literacy teaching with occupational training through basic primers on development projects (cotton-growing, cattle-farming, fishing-industry etc.) in order to improve the productive qualities of illiterates through instruction in reading and writing; that these two subject areas, viz. the training component (occupational, socio-economic, civic etc.) and instruction in reading and writing, are not conducted separately nor dissociated in time as isolated, separate subjects, but taught concurrently as integrated activities (See Recommendations below).

Recommendation No. 28:

First and foremost among this group of recommendations should come into force the principle established by EWLP and others that the most effective literacy teaching can only be done through the mother-tongue.

Recommendation No. 29:

Chapter 4.6.9.c must be noted with regard to the timing of the programs (best time of the day, session lengths, spacing of lessons etc.).

Recommendation No. 30:

Detailed information with regard to the literacy material required for functional literacy teaching in the cotton sector of Tanzania and a survey of the lessons in the illiterate's booklet are given in Chapter 5.3.2.a and 5.3.3.a respectively and need not be repeated here. It is recommended that all other vocational training projects basically follow this example, though with the necessary adaptations according to varying conditions and circumstances.

Recommendation No. 31:

It is clear from Observation 6.7.1 above that the two main subject areas, viz. the reading and writing component and the development component, must receive equal stress, both in the instruction and in the evaluation, and that the instruction in these two areas must neither be given separately, nor dissociated in time, but simultaneously. Two mistakes in previous campaigns would have been noticed in this report:

(a) Language learning (reading and writing) must be simultaneous with, but not be subordinated to the vocational and technical training as indicated in the seventh step of the EWLP functional literacy method (Chapter 4.6.5).

(b) If literacy instruction and vocational instruction have to be done simultaneously, community development projects must not be preceded by literacy classes (Cf. Chapter 4.3.b.: the practice in Ghana with regard to the Laubach technique). The failure of the campaign in Ghana proves this statement.

Recommendation No. 32:

The following should be noted in the detailed illustration in Chapter 5.3.2.c and 5.3.3 of literacy instruction in a work-oriented functional literacy program:

(a) Motivation for the use of the "Gestalt" method: recognition of the whole word as against a letter-by-letter identification by the reader (Chapter 5.2.3.c).

(b) The use of (and play with) word cards, syllable cards and sentence cards for purposes of reading (recognition) and writing must be noted (Chapter 5.3.3.b and c.).

(c) Every new word or sentence constructed from the syllable or word cards must immediately be practised in writing (Chapter 5.3.3.c).

(d) Initial progress in learning to read and write new words as part of a vocational training program will obviously have to be slow: probably not more than 5 words per lesson, as illustrated (Chapter 5.3.3.b).

(e) Numeracy practices are illustrated in Chapter 5.3.3.d.

(f) The activity method is used. The above practices are to be seen as an illustration of the principle of "learning by doing".

Recommendation No. 33:

The following progression phases are fully detailed in Chapter 5.3.4 and recommended for functional literacy programs:

(a) The study phase in which every lesson is divided into 3 stages, as described;

(b) The action phase - as described - during which classroom learning is often shifted to demonstration plots, fields for actual production, etc. (Cf. also Chapter 4.6.9.b).

Recommendation No. 34:

Experience has proved that the new literate will soon relapse into illiteracy where there is a lack of follow-up reading material through which he can apply his knowledge of reading and writing to problems and topics directly connected with his daily life. More detail with regard to this is given in Recommendation 25 above. Rural newspapers could have a new literates' corner (in larger print) with communication columns. The Tanzanian EWLP project showed that, in addition to communication flowing from the top down as well as from the bottom up in such columns, provision for horizontal communication among new literates proved to be a fruitful experiment (Chapter 4.6.9.b).

6.8 PERSONNEL

6.8.1 It has been observed that, in view of the fact that the complexity of literacy work linked to development projects calls for much skill and ingenuity on the part of the teacher/instructor, many good functional literacy programs have stranded on bad teaching (Chapter 5.3.4.a., 5.4.d). Important recommendations in this regard must be noted.

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Recommendation No. 35:

It should be remembered at all times that the illiterate adult is not a pupil, but an active participant in a group training activity, taking an active part in his own training, and that the teacher/instructor should, in consequence, not be the "schoolmaster" who is "holding the scene" and doing most of the talking, but a "master of ceremonies" in a group activity who should "trigger" the talk and action, but who knows how and when to keep silent (Chapter 5.3.5.a and b.). The group discussion method has proved to be a necessity for successful adult literacy teaching and school methods should be avoided at all times (Chapter 4.6.6.e).

Recommendation No. 36:

Attitudes and understanding on the part of the teacher/instructor plays an important role: the instructor's sensitivity to and sympathetic understanding of the unfavourable living conditions of adults from the lower socio-economic strata is a necessity for successful adult literacy teaching. Authoritarian attitudes and lack of understanding of the problems of illiterate adults were reported to be detrimental factors in most African campaigns and must be avoided at all times (Chapter 4.6.6.e., 4.6.9.d).

Recommendation No. 37:

The problem of a shortage of literacy teachers can be solved in different ways.

(a) There seems to be merit in the Tanzanian practice of making literacy instruction a compulsory extra-curricular activity for primary school teachers (Chapter 5.3.1).

(b) Extensive use of primary school teachers on a part-time basis is a practicable solution, on condition that this practice be preceded by a short, intensive pre-service training course for purposes of orientation in the fundamentals of the development project and the psychological factors involved in teaching adults (Chapter 4.6.9.a).

(c) A compulsory course in literacy teaching at teacher training colleges should also become a generally accepted practice.

(d) By virtue of EWLP's experience with non-professional teachers drawn on a part-time basis from other sectors (skilled workers, students, civil servants, literate farmers etc.), the practice of mobilizing the literate sections of the population on a large scale for part-time literacy work can be strongly recommended as the only way for countries with high illiteracy rates to become literate (N.B.: Chapter 4.6.9.a).

Recommendation No. 38:

If literacy and development work has to be done outside the teacher's/instructor's normal working hours, he should, however, be paid extra for it (Cf. for example the practice in the Republic of South Africa). The practice of unpaid volunteer teachers proved to be a failure in many countries and cannot be recommended.

Recommendation No. 39:

Training of all literacy teachers, professional and non-professional, is a necessary precautionary measure for success. EWLP's experience proved that a short and intensive initial training course for literacy instructors, followed by periodical retraining sessions, is more effective than a long initial training without retraining (Chapter 4.6.9.a). An accelerated or rapid training course of five to six days for literacy instructors with a view to providing the maximum results in the least possible time, was reported to be a successful method in Vietnam (Chapter 4.2.3) and also happens to be the method used by the Laubach schools all over the world. Considering the complexity of literacy training linked to development projects, particularly the problem of maintaining a balance between the two main subject areas, and other factors involved which have been mentioned in the preceding recommendations (orientation in the fundamentals of the development project, techniques of handling the group discussion method, attitudes and understanding etc.), this intensive period of preparation for functional literacy instruction may, however, be too short and should be extended. There are too many failures of which the Iranese project mentioned in Chapter 4.6.6.e ("Instructor attitudes and methods") may serve as a striking example.

6.9 EVALUATION OF FUNCTIONAL LITERACY AND DEVELOPMENT TRAINING

6.9.1 The functions, problems, criteria and procedures of evaluation are summarised in Chapter 4.6.7.

6.9.2 It should be noted in particular:

(a) that the inability of the EWLP evaluators to find criteria for a well-balanced assessment of the results obtained from instruction in the two main subject areas (i.e. the three R's and work-oriented training), both separately and in their mutual inter-relationship, left us with the challenge of finding a solution for this problem (Cf. Chapter 4.6.7.b, 4.6.6.f);

(b) that one of the problems of evaluation was reflected in the "Results" of EWLP's own "critical assessment" of the program, viz. that some of the "positive" results reported by EWLP's evaluation team were based on very modest changes (Chapter 4.6.8.b).

Recommendation No. 40:

Evaluation is an indispensable measure for assessing the effectiveness of the functional literacy program.

Recommendation No. 41:

A careful study of the problems of and criteria for evaluation as enunciated in Chapter 4.6.7.b and 4.6.7.c will be necessary.

Recommendation No. 42:

(a) After having taken cognizance of the first norm for evaluation in Chapter 4.6.7.c, the reading and writing test should cause no difficulty. It is, however, obvious that the 167 indicators of the EWLP evaluation team for measuring the changes resulting from instruction in the second main subject area (development training) will have to be drastically reduced to not more than approximately 30 in order to simplify the evaluation procedures. The approximate 20 items mentioned in Chapter 4.6.7.d for assessing changes with regard to -

(i) integration into the milieu,
(ii) control of the milieu, and
(iii) transformation of the milieu,

may serve as a guideline and perhaps be extended to not more than 30.

(b) It is also clear from Observation 6.9.2.b above that, in order not to record merely "positive" results for only very moderate changes, all changes observed will have to be graded for each of the items (indices) on the scale, but too much detailing which may cause anxiety in the process of evaluation should be avoided. A three-point scale for the following observations should work well:

very positive changes = 2 credits;
moderate changes .... = 1 credit;
no changes .... = 0 credits.

Recommendation No. 43:

With regard to the problem of the balance between the two main subject areas for which EWLP could not offer a solution, it does seem that, in order not to defeat the purpose of the functional literacy program, the two areas should receive equal stress. Evaluation should therefore be done separately on a 50-50 basis, but allowance should also be made for their functional and mutual inter-relationship by limiting the difference in their separate scores to a maximum of 25 on the evaluation scale.

6.10 DIVERSE RECOMMENDATIONS AND INCENTIVES

Recommendation No. 44:

(a) The practice in some countries of compelling enterprises by legislation to invest a part of their profits in literacy programs for their personnel (Chapter 5.2.2.b), is recommended for consideration, not only for literacy work, but also for other forms of adult education, for example for purposes of job-upgrading.

(b) A shortening of the working day by two hours for compulsory literacy instruction, without loss of salary, for a period of 8 to 40 days per year, as required (according to the degree of illiteracy), seemed to work well in some countries (Chapter 1.1) and is recommended for further investigation.

Recommendation No. 45:

The following encouragement measures are recommended from positive experience in other countries: prize-giving ceremonies and the distribution of certificates in honour of those who conquered their own illiteracy, at the end of each literacy course; letters of congratulation by a state authority to instructors, new literates and regions that achieved exceptional successes in a functional literacy campaign; government rewards to villages, districts and provinces for exceptional achievements (Chapter 4.3.2.e); the declaration of an Adult Education Year (Cf. Tanzania, 1970), etc.

Recommendation No. 46:

The Rhodesian project relating basic literacy teaching to the practice of improved farming methods by the running of savings clubs (Chapter 2.5.c) is recommended for further investigation.

Recommendation No. 47:

The following practices should be noted and their possibilities investigated:

(a) Secondary night schools for adults, enabling peasants and workers to attend part-time further education classes in order to qualify for job promotion or entrance to the secondary technical schools or institutions for higher learning (Chapter 4.2.3.i);

(b) Self-supported Labour Schools for young adults in rural areas: these schools must possess their own farms and half of the curriculum must be taken up by study and the other half by actual production (Chapter 4.2.3.h);

(c) A reorientation of the primary and secondary schools in rural areas in order to transform them into productive communities (Chapter 2.5.d; Cf. also Part II Chapter I - particularly for "The Cuban secondary school in the countryside).

Recommendation No. 48:

(a) University schools of education should organize part-time or short courses in functional literacy, development projects and other forms of adult education and/or sponsor such studies by means of research and publications (Cf. Chapter 5.2.1).

(b) Correspondence courses for adults offered by universities and/or other institutions are strongly recommended.

Recommendation No. 49:

Last but not least, it appears as if the possibilities of the Laubach "each one teach one" method which has the disadvantage of not being truly "functional" in the sense that it is not linked up with development projects, but the advantage that it does not cost money and that "Over half the human race constitutes our reservoir of tutors - to teach for love and not for money" (Chapter 4.1), have not yet been fully explored. If this method could somehow be related to development projects, it would solve many problems of the poorer developing countries.

6.11 CONTINUATION OF THE REPORT

6.11.1 A last observation for this part of the report is that reference has occasionally been made to an extended Part II ("Prospects, procedures and practices detailed") to be completed in 1979, for which the following subject matter coverage is foreshadowed at this stage:

Chapter 1 Adult Education and Community and Rural Development in Africa

(i.e. the integration of school and community; school vocalisation and the school as a productive unit; village technology; community training centres; training the extension worker, etc.).

Chapter 2 Adult Education and Literacy Campaigns as part of a community development plan in pan-African context: objectives, problems and conditions for success

(i.a. under- and over-investments; language problems; motivation of participants; consistency with existing resources; the education of women; post-literacy action, etc.)

Chapter 3 Assessing basic practices for adult education and literacy campaigns in Africa

(Planning and financing; structures and programs; methods, techniques and media; content of programs for community development; evaluation; role of the university)

Chapter 4 Distance Teaching and the Mass Media

(i.a. examples of radio study group campaigns; rural forums; radio clubs; correspondence units, etc.)

Chapter 5 Summarised African perspective and case studies

Chapter 6 The African subcontinent in factual and future perspective

Chapter 7 Final Recommendations and Conclusions

ANNEXURE A[x]

COMPARATIVE STATISTICAL ANALYSIS FOR

AFRICAN

AND SOME EUROPEAN AND OTHER COUNTRIES[1)]

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[x] See pp. 167 - 168 for references and explanatory notes

	ALGERIA*	ANGOLA	BENIN	BOTSWANA	BURUNDI	Non-African: ARGENTINA
1. POLITICAL DATA						
1.1. - Year of independence[2]	1962	1975	1960	1966	1962	
1.2. - Official language(s)[3]	Arabic	Portuguese	French	English et al.	French	
1.3. - Capital[4]	Algiers	Luanda	Porta Nova	Gaborone	Bujumbura	
2. AREA, POPULATION, DENSITY, POPULATION GROWTH						
2.1. - Area (square kilometers)[5]	2 381 741	1 246 700	112 622	600 372	27 834	2 766 889
2.2. - Total population, 1975[6]	16 776 000	6 761 000	3 112 000	691 000	3 763 000	25 383 000
2.3. - Population density per square km. 1975[7]	7	5	28	1	135	9
2.4. - Annual percentage population growth: 1973-1974[8]	3,19		3,38 p.a. (1973-1975)	3,33 p.a. (1973-1975)	2,17	1,33
Annual percentage population growth: 1974-1975[8]	2,99				2,56	1,31
3. GENERAL STANDARD OF EDUCATION AND DEVELOPMENT						
3.1. - Total enrolment ratio, 1972[9]	34,5	20,4	15,9	28,0	11,6	
3.2. - Classification number for enrolment ratio[10] (total: 44 countries)	11	24	28**	19**	37**	
3.3. - % of population with no schooling, 25+ years[11]	84(96) (1971)			71(68) (1971)		8(10) (1970)
% no schooling (earlier date) 25+ years[11]	88% (1966)			73% (1964)		
3.4. - % of population with no schooling, 15-24 years[12]	53(70) (1971)			41(37) (1971)		3(3) (1970)
% no schooling (earlier date) 15-24 years[12]	67% (1966)			51(45) (1964)		
3.5. - % illiteracy rate, 15+ years[13]	74(87) (1971)	97(98) (1962)	92(96) (1962)	67(65) (1964)	86(93) (1962)	8 (1971)
3.6. - % adult illiteracy rate: latest available in 1975[14]						5-10
4. STANDARD OF EDUCATION ANALYSED: FIRST AND SECOND LEVEL SCHOOL ENROLMENTS AND RELATED DATA						
4.1. - Percentage of total population enrolled for:						
(a) First level (primary school) education[15]	15+ (1975)	13+ (1972)	8+ (1973)	16+ (1975)	3+ (1974)	14+ (1973)
(b) Second level (secondary school) education[16]	3+ (1975)	1+ (1970)	1+ (1973)	2+ (1975)	1- (1974)	4+ (1973)
4.2. - % children of school-going age attending school:[17]						
(a) Net enrolment, age-group 6-11 years, 1960 and 1972	38,3 & 68,7	11,3 & 45,6	20,0 & 33,7	17,8 & 48,8	17,3 & 25,8	
(b) Net enrolment, 12-17 years, 1960 and 1972	17,2 & 33,7	5,0 & 22,3	8,1 & 15,8	33,2 & 42,9	4,0 & 11,7	
4.3. - Percentage repeaters:[18]						
(a) First (primary) level education	13 (1972)		21 (1972)	1 (1972)	22 (1970)	
(b) First grade/sixth grade	7 & 21 (1975)		17 & 26 (1975)	1 & 5 (1972)	25 & 27 (1970)	21 & 3 (1975)
4.4. - Pupil-teacher ratio:						
(a) At primary level (Year in brackets)[19]	41 (1975)	41 (1972)	53 (1974)	33 (1975)	31 (1974)	19 (1974)
(b) Comparison of the above with 1965 ratio	-2	-4	+11	-7	+9	-1
5. STANDARD OF EDUCATION: PROVISION FOR SKILLED MANPOWER						
5.1. - % of population enrolled for 3rd level education[20]	0,25 (1975)	0,05 (1971)	0,06 (1974)	0,04 (1974)	0,01 (1974)	1,99 (1974)
5.2. - % of population enrolled for university education[21]	0,25 (1975)	0,04 (1971)	0,06 (1974)	0,04 (1974)	0,01- (1974)	1,76 (1974)
5.3. - University students per 10 000 inhabitants[22]	25 (1975)	4 (1971)	6 (1974)	4 (1974)	1- (1974)	176 (1974)
5.4. - Scientists and engineers per 10 000 inhabitants[23]				13 (1973)		139 (1972)
5.5. - Scientists, engineers, technicians: % of population[24]				0,24 (1972)		

*One of 7 African countries included in Unesco's Experimental World Literacy Programme

**One of the 25 least developed countries according to the 1972 Unesco standards

	Cameroon	Central African Republic	Chad	Congo	Egypt	Non-African: Chile
1. Political data						
1.1. - Year of independence[2]	1960	1960	1960	1960	1922	
1.2. - Official language(s)[3]	French	French	French	French	Arabic	
1.3. - Capital[4]	Yaoundé	Bangui	Fort Lamy	Brazzaville	Cairo	
2. Area, population, density, population growth						
2.1. - Area (square kilometers)[5]	475 442	622 984	1 284 000	342 000	1 001 449	756 945
2.2. - Total population, 1975[6]	6 398 000	1 713 000	4 030 000	1 345 000	37 233 000	10 253 000
2.3. - Population density per square km. 1975[7]	13	3	3	4	37	14
2.4. - Annual percentage population growth: 1973-1974[8]	1,82	2,66 p.a. (1973-1975)	2,09	2,58	2,24	1,72
Annual percentage population growth: 1974-1975[8]	1,81		2,01	2,40	2,19	1,69
3. General standard of education and development						
3.1. - Total enrolment ratio, 1972[9]	34,6	27,3	10,0	69,6	34,2	
3.2. - Classification number for enrolment ratio[10] (total: 44 countries)	10	20	39**	1	12	
3.3. - % of population with no schooling, 25+ years[11]						13(8) (1970)
% no schooling (earlier date) 25+ years[11]						
3.4. - % of population with no schooling, 15-24 years[12]						4(2) (1970)
% no schooling (earlier date) 15-24 years[12]						
3.5. - % illiteracy rate, 15+ years[13]	81(93) (1962)	93(98) (1962)	94(99+) (1964)		74(88) (1960)	12(13) (1970)
3.6. - % adult illiteracy rate: latest available in 1975[14]		80				
4. Standard of education analysed: first and second level school - enrolments and related data						
4.1. - Percentage of total population enrolled for:						
(a) First level (primary school) education[15]	15+ (1972)	10+ (1972)	5+ (1975)	25+ (1974)	11+ (1974)	22+ (1973)
(b) Second level (secondary school) education[16]	1+ (1972)	1- (1972)	1- (1975)	(6+ (1974))	5+ (1974)	(4+ (1973))
4.2. - % children of school-going age attending school:[17]						
(a) Net enrolment, age-group 6-11 years, 1960 and 1972	42,3 & 73,5	23,9 & 64,3	9,9 & 21,3	60,3 & 100	60,7 & 65,4	
(b) Net enrolment, 12-17 years, 1960 and 1972	23,9 & 39,7	12,0 & 24,3	5,7 & 10,9	37,0 & 91,0	19,5 & 36,3	
4.3. - Percentage repeaters:[18]						
(a) First (primary) level education	26 (1972)	26 (1972)	27 (1970)	30 (1972)		
(b) First grade/sixth grade	32 & 35 (1973)	28 & 34 (1972)	41 & 59 (1975)	32 & 34 (1974)		19 & 8 (1974)
4.4. - Pupil-teacher ratio:						
(a) At primary level (Year in brackets)[19]	51 (1973)	69 (1974)	78 (1973)	61 (1974)	40 (1974)	35 (1975
(b) Comparison of the above with 1965 ratio	+4	+15	-5	+1	-1	+1
5. Standard of education: provision for skilled manpower						
5.1. - % of population enrolled for 3rd level education[20]	0,10 (1974)	0,02 (1973)	0,01 (1975)	0,23 (1974)	1,12 (1974)	1,44 (1974)
5.2. - % of population enrolled for university education[21]	0,10 (1974)	0,01- (1973)	0,01 (1975)	0,22 (1974)	1,01 (1974)	1,44 (1974)
5.3. - University students per 10 000 inhabitants[22]	10 (1974)	1- (1975)	1 (1975)	22 (1974)	101 (1974)	144 (1974)
5.4. - Scientists and engineers per 10 000 inhabitants[23]	6 (1970)				178 (1973)	
5.5. - Scientists, engineers, technicians: % of population[24]	0,06 (1970)					[illegible]

**One of the 25 least developed countries according to the 1972 Unesco standards

		EQUITORIAL GUINEA	ETHIOPIA*	GABON	GAMBIA	GHANA	NON AFRICAN: DENMARK
1.	POLITICAL DATA						
1.1	Year of independence2)	1968	Since early times	1960	1965	1957	
1.2.	Official language(s)3)	Spanish	Amharic	French	English	English	
1.3.	Capital4)	Malabo	Addis Ababa	Libreville	Banjul	Accra	
2	AREA, POPULATION, DENSITY, POPULATION GROWTH						
2.1	Area (square kilometers)5)	28 051	1 221 900	267 667	11 295	238 537	43 069
2.2.	Total population, 1975 6)	310 000	27 946 000	526 000	524 000	9 866 000	5 059 000
2.3	Population density per square km. 1975 7)	11	23	2	46	41	117
2.4.	Annual percentage population growth: 1973-1974 8)	1,98 p.a.	2,06	0,97	3,06 p.a.	2,91	0,40
	Annual percentage population growth: 1974-1975 8)	(1973-1975)	2,53	1,14	(1973-1975)	2,63	0,28
3.	GENERAL STANDARD OF EDUCATION AND DEVELOPMENT						
3.1.	Total enrolment ratio, 1972 9)	33,6	7,4	57,3	13,7	31,7	
3.2.	Classification number for enrolment ratio10) (total: 44 countries)	13	40**	2	35	15	
3.3.	% of population with no schooling, 25+ years11)						
	% no schooling (earlier date) 25+ years11)						
3.4.	% of population with no schooling, 15-24 years12)					86(94) (1960)	
	% no schooling (earlier date) 15-24 years12)						
3.5.	% illiteracy rate, 15+ years13)					64(79) (1960)	
3.6.	% adult illiteracy rate: latest available in 1975 14)		94(96) (1965) 95+	88(95) (1961)	94(97) (1962)	81(90) (1962) 75-80	
4.	STANDARD OF EDUCATION ANALYSED: FIRST AND SECOND LEVEL SCHOOL ENROLMENTS AND RELATED DATA						
4.1.	Percentage of total population enrolled for:						
(a)	First level (primary school) education15)	10+ (1970)	3+ (1974)	23+ (1974)	4+ (1975)	10+ (1974)	11+ (1973)
(b)	Second level (secondary school) education16)	2+ (1970)	1- (1973)	4+ (1974)	1+ (1975)	5+ (1974)	7+ (1973)
4.2.	% children of school-going age attending school:17)						
(a)	Net enrolment, age-group 6-11 years, 1960 and 1972	29,7 & 41,6	4,1 & 11,3	63,2 & 100	12,6 & 29,2	39,0 & 50,6	
(b)	Net enrolment, 12-17 years, 1960 and 1972	57,5 & 70,7	5,2 & 13,1	35,8 & 77,2	7,3 & 15,7	24,0 & 46,0	
4.3.	Percentage repeaters:18)						
(a)	First (primary) level education			37 (1972)	13 (1972)	4 (1971)	
(b)	First grade/sixth grade			50 & 23 (1974)	7 & 35 (1975)	7 & 3 (1971)	
4.4.	Pupil-teacher ratio:						
(a)	At primary level (Year in brackets)19)	57 (1973)	46 (1973)	50 (1974)	26 (1975)	30 (1974)	16 (1974)
(b)	Comparison of the above with 1965 ratio	-8	-5	+11	-13	-2	-3
5.	STANDARD OF EDUCATION: PROVISION FOR SKILLED MANPOWER						
5.1.	% of population enrolled for 3rd level education20)		0,02 (1973)	0,19 (1974)		0,08 (1974)	2,09 (1974)
5.2.	% of population enrolled for university education21)		0,02 (1973)	0,10 (1974)		0,08 (1974)	1,11 (1974)
5.3.	University students per 10 000 inhabitants22)		2 (1973)	10 (1974)		8 (1974)	111 (1974)
5.4.	Scientists and engineers per 10 000 inhabitants23)					8 (1970)	
5.5.	Scientists, engineers, technicians: % of population24)					0,24 (1970)	

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		GUINEA*	GUINEA-BISSAU	IVORY COAST	KENYA	LESOTHO	Non African FRANCE
1.	POLITICAL DATA						
1.1	Year of independence[2]	1958	1974	1960	1963	1966	
1.2	Official language(s)[3]	French	Portuguese	French	English et al.	English et al.	
1.3.	Capital[4]	Conakry	Bissau	Abidjan	Nairobi	Maseru	
2.	AREA, POPULATION, DENSITY, POPULATION GROWTH						
2.1	Area (square kilometers)[5]	245 857	36 125	322 463	582 646	30 355	547 026
2.2	Total population, 1975[6]	4 416 000	525 000	4 885 000	13 399 000	1 039 000	52 913 000
2.3	Population density per square km. 1975[7]	18	15	15	23	34	97
2.4.	Annual percentage population growth: 1973-1974[8]	2,47	1,57	2,47	3,44	2,21	0,77
	Annual percentage population growth: 1974-1975[8]	2,46	1,52	2,46	3,63	2,21	0,77
3.	GENERAL STANDARD OF EDUCATION AND DEVELOPMENT						
3.1.	Total enrolment ratio, 1972[9]	13,3	15,1	50,3	31,3	36,3	
3.2	Classification number for enrolment ratio[10] (total 44 countries)	38**	32	17	16	8**	
3.3.	% of population with no schooling, 25+ years[11]				76(87) (1969)		
	% no schooling (earlier date) 25+ years[11]				77% (1962)	41% (1966)	
3.4.	% of population with no schooling, 15-24 years[12]				60(75) (1969)		
	% no schooling (earlier date) 15-24 years[12]				57% (1962)	18% (1966)	
3.5	% illiteracy rate, 15+ years[13]	91(96) (1965)		95(98) (1962)	81(90) (1962)	41(32) (1966)	
3.6.	% adult illiteracy rate: latest available in 1975[14]				75-80		
4.	STANDARD OF EDUCATION ANALYSED: FIRST AND SECOND LEVEL SCHOOL ENROLMENTS AND RELATED DATA						
4.1.	Percentage of total population enrolled for:						
(a)	First level (primary school) education[15]	4+ (1970)	14+ (1974)	13+ (1973)	21+ (1975)	21+ (1975)	9+ (1973)
(b)	Second level (secondary school) education[16]	1+ (1970)	1- (1974)	2+ (1973)	1+ (1975)	1+ (1975)	9+ (1973)
4.2	% children of school-going age attending school:[17]						
(a)	Net enrolment, age-group 6-11 years, 1960 and 1972	13,9 & 25,3	10,9 & 29,5	[illegible] & 58,0	34,3 & 62,3	50,8 & 61,1	
(b)	Net enrolment, 12-17 years, 1960 and 1972	8,9 & 19,8	10,5 & 22,8	17,5 & 39,7	27,8 & 32,6	61,8 & 63,1	
4.3.	Percentage repeaters:[18]						
(a)	First (primary) level education			29 (1969)	5 (1972)	22 (1972)	
(b)	First grade/sixth grade			21 & 46 (1975)	5 & 7 (1975)	4 & 3 (1975)	
4.4.	Pupil-teacher ratio:						
(a)	At primary level (Year in brackets)[19]	36 (1971)	52 (1975)	45 (1974)	35 (1974)	53 (1975)	23 (1974)
(b)	Comparison of the above with 1965 ratio	-5	+22	2	+1	-4	-2
5.	STANDARD OF EDUCATION: PROVISION FOR SKILLED MANPOWER						
5.1.	% of population enrolled for 3rd level education[20]	0,05 (1970)		0,15 (1975)	0,09 (1974)	0,06 (1974)	1,88 (1974)
5.2.	% of population enrolled for university education[21]			0,13 (1975)	0,05 (1974)	0,05 (1974)	1,47 (1974)
5.3.	University students per 10 000 inhabitants[22]	5 (1970)		13 (1975)	5 (1974)	5 (1974)	147 (1974)
5.4.	Scientists and engineers per 10 000 inhabitants[23]				3 (1972)		
5.5.	Scientists, engineers, technicians: % of population[24]				0,11(1972)		3,29 (1971)

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		LIBERIA	LIBYA	MADAGASCAR*	MALAWI	MALI*	Non African ITALY
1.	POLITICAL DATA						
1.1	Year of independence[2]	1847	1951	1960	1964	1960	
1.2.	Official language(s)[3]	English	Arabic	French	English et al.	French	
1.3.	Capital[4]	Monrovia	Tripoli	Tananarive	Lilongwe	Bamako	
2.	AREA, POPULATION, DENSITY, POPULATION GROWTH						
2.1.	Area (square kilometres)[5]	111 369	1 759 540	587 041	118 484	1 240 000	301 225
2.2.	Total population, 1975[6]	1 708 000	2 444 000	7 993 000	5 044 000	5 697 000	55 810 000
2.3	Population density per square km. 1975[7]	15	1	14	43	5	185
2.4.	Annual percentage population growth: 1973-1974[8]	2,39	4,27	4*	2.78	3,44	0,84
	Annual percentage population growth: 1974-1975[8]	2,28	4,01		2,85	3,65	0,80
3.	GENERAL STANDARD OF EDUCATION AND DEVELOPMENT						
3.1.	- Total enrolment ratio, 1972[9]	18,7	55,7	31,9	20,9	10,1	
3.2.	- Classification number for enrolment ratio[10] (total: 44 countries)	27	3	14	23**	38**	
3.3.	- % of population with no schooling, 25+ years[11]						
	% no schooling (earlier date) 25+ years[11]	92(97) (1962)			68(79) (1966)		
3.4.	- % of population with no schooling, 15-24 years[12]						
	% no schooling (earlier date) 15-24 years[12]	81(92) (1962)			82(74) (1966)		
3.5.	- % illiteracy rate, 15+ years[13]	91(96) (1962)	78(96) (1964)	80(85) (1962)	78(88) (1966)	98(99+) (1962)	6(7) (1971)
3.6.	% adult illiteracy rate: latest available in 1975[14]			65-70			5-10
4.	STANDARD OF EDUCATION ANALYSED: FIRST AND SECOND LEVEL SCHOOL ENROLMENTS AND RELATED DATA						
4.1.	- Percentage of total population enrolled for:						
(a)	First level (primary school) education[15]	9+ (1975)	22+ (1974)	13+ (1970)	12+ (1974)	5+ (1974)	9+ (1973)
(b)	Second level (secondary school) education[16]	2+ (1975)	5+ (1974)	1+ (1970)	1- (1974)	1- (1974)	8+ (1973)
4.2.	- % children of school-going age attending school:[17]						
(a)	Net enrolment, age-group 6-11 years, 1960 and 1972	32,2 & 33,9	42,3 & 100	34,0 & 67,0	29,0 & 32,9	8,3 & 16,5	
(b)	Net enrolment, 12-17 years, 1960 and 1972	9,4 & 28,2	27,4 & 66,5	23,1 & 32,6	25,9 & 35,9	2,5 & 15,2	
4.3.	- Percentage repeaters:[18]						
(a)	First (primary) level education		9 (1972)	29 (1971)		26 (1970)	
(b)	First grade/sixth grade		2 & 13 (1974)	38 & 27 (1971)		25 & 37 (1970)	7 & 3 (1973)
4.4.	- Pupil-teacher ratio:						
(a)	At primary level (Year in brackets)[19]	41 (1975)	23 (1974)	6[illegible] (1973)	58 (1974)	35 (1974)	19 (1975)
(b)	Comparison of the above with 1965 ratio	+9	-8	[illegible]	+18	-6	-3
5.	STANDARD OF EDUCATION: PROVISION FOR SKILLED MANPOWER						
5.1.	- % of population enrolled for 3rd level education[20]	0,14 (1975)	0.51 (1974)	0,09 (1971)	0,02 (1974)	0,04 (1974)	1,84 (1973)
5.2.	- % of population enrolled for university education[21]	0,14 (1975)	0.51 (1974)	0,08 (1971)	0,02 (1974)		1,53 (1973)
5.3.	- University students per 10 000 inhabitants[22]	14 (1975)	51 (1974)	8 (1971)	2 (1974)	1 (1970)	153 (1973)
5.4.	- Scientists and engineers per 10 000 inhabitants[23]		51 (1973)				
5.5.	- Scientists, engineers, technicians: % of population[24]						

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	MAURITANIA	MAURITIUS	MOROCCO	MOZAMBIQUE	NIGER	NON-AFRICAN: NETHERLANDS
1. POLITICAL DATA						
1.1. - Year of independence[2]	1960	1968	1956	1975	1960	
1.2. - Official language(s)[3]	Arabic/French	French/English	Arabic	Portuguese	French	
1.3. - Capital[4]	Nouakchott	Port Louis	Rabat	Maputo	Niamey	
2. AREA, POPULATION, DENSITY, POPULATION GROWTH						
2.1. - Area (square kilometers)[5]	1 030 700	2 045	446 550	783 030	1 267 000	40 844
2.2. - Total population, 1975[6]	1 318 000	899 000	17 305 000	9 239 000	4 600 000	13 653 000
2.3. - Population density per square km, 1975[7]	1	440	39	12	4	334
2.4. - Annual percentage population growth: 1973-1974[8]	2,62	2,20 p.a.	2,98 p.a.	2,33	3,34 p.a.	0,77
Annual percentage population growth: 1974-1975[8]	2,40	(1973-1975)	(1973-1975)	2,27	(1973-1975)	0,82
3. GENERAL STANDARD OF EDUCATION AND DEVELOPMENT						
3.1. - Total enrolment ratio, 1972[9]	6,8	43,5	19,5	15,2	5,4	
3.2. Classification number for enrolment ratio[10] (total: 44 countries)	41	4	25	31	43**	
3.3. - % of population with no schooling, 25+ years[11]						
% no schooling (earlier date) 25+ years[11]						
3.4. - % of population with no schooling, 15-24 years[12]						
% no schooling (earlier date) 15-24 years[12]						
3.5. - % illiteracy rate, 15+ years[13]			79(90) (1971)		97(90) (1962)	
3.6. - % adult illiteracy rate: latest available in 1975[14]				95+		
4. STANDARD OF EDUCATION ANALYSED: FIRST AND SECOND LEVEL SCHOOL ENROLMENTS AND RELATED DATA						
4.1. - Percentage of total population enrolled for:						
(a) First level (primary school) education[15]	2+ (1970)	17+ (1974)	8+ (1975)	6+ (1972)	2+ (1974)	10+ (1973)
(b) Second level (secondary school) education[16]	1- (1971)	7+ (1974)	2+ (1975)	1- (1972)	1- (1974)	10+ (1973)
4.2. - % children of school-going age attending school:[17]						
(a) Net enrolment, age-group 6-11 years, 1960 and 1972	5,8 & 14,4	86,9 & 95,0	34,7 & 35,7	36,8 & 38,7	4,4 & 11,7	
(b) Net enrolment, 12-17 years, 1960 and 1972	2,3 & 6,7	36,3 & 42,7	13,7 & 25,2	3,4 & 10,5	1,7 & 5,1	
4.3. - Percentage repeaters:[18]						
(a) First (primary) level education	16 (1968)				19 (1972)	3 (1972)
(b) First grade/sixth grade	5 & 21 (1968)		23 & 44 (1975)		8 & 36 (1974)	6 & 1 (1974)
4.4. - Pupil-teacher ratio:						
(a) At primary level (Year in brackets)[19]	22 (1971)	27 (1974)	40 (1975)	66 (1972)	41 (1974)	28 (1974)
(b) Comparison of the above with 1965 ratio	+2	-7	+1	-9	-1	-3
5. STANDARD OF EDUCATION: PROVISION FOR SKILLED MANPOWER						
5.1. - % of population enrolled for 3rd level education[20]		0,15 (1974)	0,20 (1974)	0,03 (1973)	0,01 (1974)	1,95 (1974)
5.2. - % of population enrolled for university education[21]		0,15 (1974)	0,16 (1974)	0,03 (1973)	0,01- (1974)	0,83 (1974)
5.3. - University students per 10 000 inhabitants[22]		15 (1974)	16 (1974)	3 (1973)	1- (1974)	83 (1974)
5.4. - Scientists and engineers per 10 000 inhabitants[23]						335 (1973)
5.5. - Scientists, engineers, technicians: % of population[24]						5,57 (1972)

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	NIGERIA	RWANDA	SENEGAL	SIERRA LEONE	SOMALIA	Non-African: WEST GERMANY
1. POLITICAL DATA						
1.1. - Year of independence[2]	1960	1962	1960	1961	1960	
1.2. - Official language(s)[3]	English	French	French	English	Arabic	
1.3. - Capital[4]	Lagos	Kigali	Dakar	Freetown	Mogadishu	
2. AREA, POPULATION, DENSITY, POPULATION GROWTH						
2.1. - Area (square kilometers)[5]	923 768	26 338	196 192	71 740	637 657	248 577
2.2. - Total population, 1975[6]	62 925 000	4 198 000	4 136 000	2 982 000	3 170 000	61 832 000
2.3. - Population density per square km. 1975[7]	68	159	21	42	5	249
2.4. - Annual percentage population growth: 1973-1974[8]	2,69	2,64 p.a.	3,38 p.a.	2,70 p.a.	2,66	0,17
Annual percentage population growth: 1974-1975[8]	2,86	(1973-1975)	(1973-1975)	(1973-1975)	2,52	-0,37
3. GENERAL STANDARD OF EDUCATION AND DEVELOPMENT						
3.1. - Total enrolment ratio, 1972[9]	14,9	21,8	18,8	15,4	5,6	
3.2. - Classification number for enrolment ratio[10] (total: 44 countries)	34	22**	26	29	42**	
3.3. - % of population with no schooling, 25+ years[11]						
% no schooling (earlier date) 25+ years[11]						
3.4. - % of population with no schooling, 15-24 years[12]						
% no schooling (earlier date) 15-24 years[12]						
3.5. - % illiteracy rate, 15+ years[13]	85(94) (1962)	84(93) (1962)	94(98) (1961)	93(96) (1963)	96(100) (1962)	
3.6. - % adult illiteracy rate: latest available in 1975[14]	85-90					
4. STANDARD OF EDUCATION ANALYSED: FIRST AND SECOND LEVEL SCHOOL ENROLMENTS AND RELATED DATA						
4.1. - Percentage of total population enrolled for:						
(a) First level (primary school) education[15]	7+ (1974)	9+ (1975)	7+ (1974)	7+ (1974)	6+ (1975)	10+ (1973)
(b) Second level (secondary school) education[16]	1- (1974)	1- (1975)	1+ (1970)	1+ (1974)	1- (1975)	8+ (1973)
4.2. - % children of school-going age attending school:[17]						
(a) Net enrolment, age-group 6-11 years, 1960 and 1972	24,2 & 33,3	47,0 & 54,6	16,6 & 26,4	10,6 & 32,2	4,0 & 7,3	
(b) Net enrolment, 12-17 years, 1960 and 1972	13,9 & 13,2	10,1 & 12,9	14,2 & 30,0	9,9 & 17,7	2,7 & 8,3	
4.3. - Percentage repeaters:[18]						
(a) First (primary) level education		25 (1972)	19 (1971)			3 (1970)
(b) First grade/sixth grade		27 & 24 (1974)	11 & 34 (1972)			4 & 0 (1970)
4.4. - Pupil-teacher ratio:						
(a) At primary level (Year in brackets)[19]	34 (1973)	50 (1975)	49 (1975)	32 (1974)	57 (1975)	23 (1974)
(b) Comparison of the above with 1965 ratio	+1	-17	+6	No change	+21	-4
5. STANDARD OF EDUCATION: PROVISION FOR SKILLED MANPOWER						
5.1. - % of population enrolled for 3rd level education[20]	0,04 (1973)	0,02 (1974)	0,20 (1975)	0,06 (1974)	0,06 (1975)	1,77 (1973)
5.2. - % of population enrolled for university education[21]	0,04 (1973)	0,02 (1974)	0,20 (1975)	0,06 (1974)	0,06 (1975)	1,10 (1974)
5.3. - University students per 10 000 inhabitants[22]	4 (1973)	2 (1974)	20 (1975)	6 (1974)	6 (1975)	110 (1974)
5.4. - Scientists and engineers per 10 000 inhabitants[23]	4 (1970)					179 (1973)
5.5. - Scientists, engineers, technicians: % of population[24]	0,01 (1970)					

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	SUDAN*	SWAZILAND	TANZANIA*	TOGO	TUNISIA	NON-AFRICAN: JAPAN
1. POLITICAL DATA						
1.1. - Year of independence 2)	1956	1968	1961	1960	1956	
1.2. - Official language(s) 3)	Arabic	English *et al.*	English *et al.*	French	Arabic	
1.3. - Capital 4)	Khartoum	Mbabane	Dar-es-Salaam	Lomé	Tunis	
2. AREA, POPULATION, DENSITY, POPULATION GROWTH						
2.1. - Area (square kilometres) 5)	2 505 813	17 363	945 087	56 000	163 610	372 313
2.2. - Total population, 1975 6)	17 757 000	494 000	15 300 000	2 222 000	5 772 000	110 953 000
2.3. - Population density per square km, 1975 7)	7	28	16	40	35	298
2.4. - Annual percentage population growth: 1973-1974 8)	2,50	3,24	3,10 p.a.	2,55	2,98 p.a.	1,22
Annual percentage population growth: 1974-1975 8)	2,44	3,24	(1973-1975)	2,30	(1973-1975)	1,16
3. GENERAL STANDARD OF EDUCATION AND DEVELOPMENT						
3.1. - Total enrolment ratio, 1972 9)	15,0	37,8	15,3	29,1	39,6	
3.2. - Classification number for enrolment ratio 10) (total: 44 countries)	33**	7	30**	18	6	
3.3. - % of population with no schooling, 25+ years 11) % no schooling (earlier date) 25+ years 11)		73(76) (1966)		90(97) (1970)	89(96) (1966)	
3.4. - % of population with no schooling, 15-24 years 12) % no schooling (earlier date) 15-24 years 12)		45(44) (1966)		69(83) (1970)	85(95) (1966)	
3.5. - % illiteracy rate, 15+ years 13)	86(96) (1966)		72(85) (1967)	84(93) (1970)	76(89) (1966)	2(3) (1960)
3.6. - % adult illiteracy rate: latest available in 1975 14)	85-90					
4. STANDARD OF EDUCATION ANALYSED: FIRST AND SECOND LEVEL SCHOOL ENROLMENTS AND RELATED DATA						
4.1. - Percentage of total population enrolled for:						
(a) First level (primary school) education 15)	6+ (1974)	18+ (1975)	10+ (1975)	16+ (1975)	16+ (1975)	9+ (1973)
(b) Second level (secondary school) education 16)	1+ (1974)	3+ (1975)	1- (1975)	2+ (1975)	3+ (1975)	8+ (1973)
4.2. - % children of school-going age attending school: 17)						
(a) Net enrolment, age-group 6-11 years, 1960 and 1972	13,5 & 27,7	39,2 & 59,7	14,4 & 26,4	50,9 & 61,1	59,2 & 75,6	
(b) Net enrolment, 12-17 years, 1960 and 1972	7,5 & 19,7	32,2 & 56,0	16,7 & 24,0	15,6 & 30,9	28,2 & 41,2	
4.3. - Percentage repeaters: 18)						
(a) First (primary) level education		15 (1972)	2 (1971)	33 (1972)		
(b) First grade/sixth grade		9 & 11 (1975)	1 & 0 (1971)	37 & 34 (1975)		
4.4. - Pupil-teacher ratio:						
(a) At primary level (Year in brackets) 19)	39 (1974)	38 (1975)	53 (1975)	60 (1975)	40 (1975)	25 (1975)
(b) Comparison of the above with 1965 ratio	-9	+2	+1	+10	-16	-3
5. STANDARD OF EDUCATION: PROVISION FOR SKILLED MANPOWER						
5.1. - % of population enrolled for 3rd level education 20)	0,13 (1974)	0,14 (1975)	0,02 (1975)	0,11 (1975)	0,30 (1975)	1,97 (1974)
5.2. - % of population enrolled for university education 21)	0,01- (1973)	0,09 (1975)	0,02 (1975)	0,10 (1975)	0,30 (1975)	1,60 (1974)
5.3. - University students per 10 000 inhabitants 22)	1- (1973)	9 (1975)	2 (1975)	11 (1975)	30 (1975)	160 (1974)
5.4. - Scientists and engineers per 10 000 inhabitants 23)	9 (1971)			2 (1971)		124 (1973)
5.5. - Scientists, engineers, technicians: % of population 24)			0,13 (1970)	0,03 (1971)		

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		Uganda	Upper Volta	Zaire	Zambia	Non-African: U.S.A.	U.S.S.R.
1.	**Political data**						
1.1.	- Year of independence[2]	1962	1960	1960	1964		
1.2.	- Official language(s)[3]	English *et al.*	French	French	English		
1.3.	- Capital[4]	Kampala	Ouagadougou	Kinshasa	Lusaka		
2.	**Area, population, density, population growth**						
2.1.	- Area (square kilometres)[5]	236 036	274 200	2 345 409	752 614	9 363 123	22 402 200
2.2.	- Total population, 1975[6]	11 549 000	6 032 000	24 902 000	4 896 000	213 611 000	254 382 000
2.3.	- Population density per square km. 1975[7]	49	22	11	7	23	11
2.4.	- Annual percentage population growth: 1973-1974[8]	3,35	2,38	2,80	2,50	0,72	0,95
	Annual percentage population growth: 1974-1975[8]	3,26	2,24	2,73	2,96	0,80	0,91
3.	**General standard of education and development**						
3.1.	- Total enrolment ratio, 1972[9]	26,1	4,8	40,7	36,2		
3.2.	- Classification number per enrolment ratio[10] (total: 44 countries)	21**	44**	5	9		
3.3.	- % of population with no schooling, 25+ years[11]	72(86) (1959)			64(79) (1969)	7(6) (1971)	
	% no schooling (earlier date) 25+ years[11]						
3.4.	- % of population with no schooling, 15-24 years[12]	45(60) (1969)			52(68) (1969)	2(2) (1971)	
	% no schooling (earlier date) 15-24 years[12]						
3.5.	- % illiteracy rate, 15+ years[13]		99(99+) (1962)	69(86) (1962)	53(66) (1969)	1(1) (1969)	
3.6.	- % adult illiteracy rate: latest available in 1975[14]	75				1-3	1-3
4.	**Standard of education analysis: first and second level school enrolments and related data**						
4.1.	- Percentage of total population enrolled for:						
(a)	First level (primary school) education[15]	8+ (1975)	2+ (1974)	10+ (1972)	10+ (1974)	14+ (1973)	10+ (1974)
(b)	Second level (secondary school) education[16]	1- (1974)	1- (1974)	1+ (1972)	1+ (1974)	10+ (1973)	4+ (1974)
4.2.	- % children of school-going age attending school:[17]						
(a)	Net enrolment, age-group 6-11 years, 1960 and 1972	34,3 & 51,6	7,1 & 10,6	60,3 & 80,9	42,0 & 67,3		
(b)	Net enrolment, 12-17 years, 1960 and 1972	24,5 & 32,4	1,9 & 4,7	14,8 & 52,8	13,4 & 47,2		
4.3.	- Percentage repeaters:[18]						
(a)	First (primary) level education		16 (1970)	23 (1971)	1 (1972)		
(b)	First grade/sixth grade		14 & 36 (1974)	27 & 18 (1971)	0 & 1 (1974)		1 & 1 (1975)
4.4.	- Pupil-teacher ratio:						
(a)	At primary level (Year in brackets)[19]	34 (1974)	46 (1974)	41 (1972)	48 (1974)	20 (1974)	
(b)	Comparison of the above with 1965 ratio	-1	-1	+5	-3	-8	
5.	**Standard of education: provision for skilled manpower**						
5.1.	- % of population enrolled for 3rd level education[20]	0,04 (1975)	0,01 (1974)	0,09 (1974)	0.10 (1974)	4,82 (1974)	1,88 (1974)
5.2.	- % of population enrolled for university education[21]	0,03 (1975)	0,01 (1974)	0,06 (1974)	0,05 (1974)	3,26 (1974)	
5.3.	- University students per 10 000 inhabitants[22]	3 (1975)	1 (1974)	6 (1974)	5 (1974)	326 (1974)	187 (1973)
5.4.	- Scientists and engineers per 10 000 inhabitants[23]				14 (1970)		336 (1973)
5.5.	- Scientists, engineers, technicians: % of population[24]				0.51 (1970)		8,15 (1973)

**One of the 25 least developed countries according to the 1972 Unesco standards

References and Explanatory Notes (Annexure A)

1) A detailed statistical analysis for 44 African countries was completed from various sources with a view to a comprehensive perspective on the African scene. The 44 countries are those grouped in a Unesco study on the basis of increasing overall enrolment ratios for the year 1972 and represent 92 per cent of the total population of the continent (Unesco, 1975a, pp.1-4). Some European and other non-African countries were added to the list solely for the purpose of elucidating, by way of comparison, the African scene in some of the items of this statistical study, and not for an in-depth study of these non-African countries as such, which would have required a much more complete statistical analysis for these non-African countries than was found necessary for the purpose of this study on Africa.

2) Cf. (a) Africa Institute, 1976a: Map of Africa
(b) Africa Institute, 1976b, pp.17-18
(c) Collins, 1975 : alphabetical order.

3) Cf. Ref. No. 2(a) and 2(c) above.

4) "Die Transvaler" : "Bylae .....", 3.3.1976, p.9; Collins, 1975.

5) Unesco, 1977, Table 1.1, pp.31-36.

6) Unesco, 1977, pp.31-36; Unesco, 1975d, Table 1.1 (pp.1-4).

7) Calculated from: Unesco, 1977, pp.31-36; Unesco, 1976d, Table 1.1

8) Calculated from: Unesco, 1977, pp.31-36; Unesco, 1976d, Table 1.1; Unesco, 1975d, pp.1-4; Unesco, 1975f, Table 1.1.

Where inconsistencies occur (probably due to inaccurate statistical returns from some countries), an annual percentage increase is given for the period 1973-1975.

9) Unesco, 1975d, Table 1.1; Unesco, 1975a, Annexure II, Table 2 & 3.

10) Unesco, 1975a, p.1. The double asterisk (**)which is used 15 times under this item (3.2), indicates that these countries were included in the list of the 25 least developed countries according to the 1972 Unesco standards.

11) (a) Unesco, 1977, pp.60-81;
(b) Unesco, 1976d, pp.40-50;
(c) Unesco, 1975f, Table 1.3, pp.40-50;
(d) Unesco, 1975a, Annexure II, Table 3.

Percentages for women and year of statistical returns are both given in brackets.

12) Cf. Ibid (b) - (d). Percentages for women and year of statistical returns are both given in brackets.

13) Unesco, 1977, pp.43-56; Unesco, 1975d, Table 1.1, pp.5-8. Only African and indigenous populations. Percentages for women given in brackets.

Date for latest available figures indicated.

14) Calculated from: Jones, 1975, pp.26-29.

15) Percentages calculated from: Unesco, 1975f, pp.27-31 & 167-181; Unesco, 1976d, pp.27-31 & 134-149; Unesco, 1977, pp.36, 92. Year given in brackets.

16) Percentages calculated from: Unesco, 1975f, pp.27-31 & 167-181; Unesco, 1976d, pp.27-31 & 156-217; Unesco, 1977, pp.36, 92. Year given in brackets.

17) Extracted from: Unesco, 1975a, Annexure 11 Table 3.

18) (a) Unesco, 1975b, pp.14-15;
(b) Unesco, 1977, pp.261-276.
Year given in brackets.

19) Extracted from: Unesco, 1977, pp.209-227; Unesco, 1976d, pp.134-149; Unesco, 1975f, pp.167-181. Year given in brackets.

20) Percentages calculated from: Unesco, 1977, pp.31-36, 346-387; Unesco, 1976d, pp.27-31, 222-267. Year given in brackets.

21) Ibid.

22) Calculated from item 5.2. For 1970 figures, cf. Williams, 1976, p.301. Year given in brackets.

23) Cf. Unesco, 1977, pp.728-735; Unesco, 1976d, pp.524-531. Year given in brackets.

24) Calculated from: Unesco, 1975f, pp.27-31, 558-563; Unesco, 1976d, pp. 27-31, 451-457. Year given in brackets.

ANNEXURE B

EXTRACTS FROM "DECLARATION OF PERSEPOLIS"[1]

(Cf Bataille, 1976, pp. 273 - 276)

The number of illiterates is constantly growing.

This reflects the failure of development policies that are indifferent to man and to the satisfaction of his basic needs.

In spite of the progress made in some countries as a result of far-reaching social changes, there are close to one thousand million illiterates in the world, and many more undernourished people.

In many cases, moreover, even people who have become literate have not yet acquired to a sufficient degree the means of becoming aware of the problems of the societies in which they live and of their own problems, nor the means of solving them or of playing a real part in their solution.........

Successes were achieved when literacy was linked to meeting man's fundamental requirements, ranging from his immediate vital needs to effective participation in social change.

Successes were achieved when literacy programmes were not restricted to learning the skills of reading, writing and arithmetic, and when they did not subordinate literacy to the short-term needs of growth unconcerned with man........

The International Symposium for Literacy, meeting in Persepolis from 3 - 8 September 1975, in unanimously adopting this Declaration, considered literacy to be not just the process of learning the skills of reading, writing and arithmetic, but a contribution to the liberation of man and to his full development. Thus conceived, literacy creates the conditions for the acquisition of a critical consciousness of the contradictions of society in which man lives and of its aims;it also stimulates initiative and his participation in the creation of projects capable of acting upon the world, of transforming it, and of defining the aims of an authentic human development. It should open the way to a mastery of techniques and human relations. Literacy is not an end in itself. It is a fundamental human right ....

---

[1] Underlining done for emphasis by JJF (Cf. reason given: Chapter 5.1)

Literacy, like education in general, is not the driving force of historical change. It is not the only means of liberation but it is an essential instrument for all social change ....

The ways and means of literacy activities should be founded on the specific characteristics of the environment, personality and identity of each people. True education must be rooted in the culture and civilization of each people, aware of its unique contribution to universal culture and open to a fertile dialogue with other civilizations.

Literacy is effective to the extent that the people to whom it is addressed, in particular women and the least privileged groups (such as migrant workers), feel the need for it in order to meet their most essential requirements, in particular the need to take part in the decisions of the community to which they belong.

Literacy is therefore inseparable from participation, which is at once its purpose and its condition. The illiterate should not be the object but the subject of the process whereby he becomes literate. A far-reaching mobilization of human resources implies the commitment of literacy students and teachers alike. The latter should not form a specialized and permanent professional body, but should be recruited as close as possible to the masses undergoing literacy training and should belong to the same or to a related social and professional group in order to make dialogue easier.

The effectiveness of this mobilization will be increased if greater respect is paid to the initiative of the populations concerned and to consultation with them, instead of abiding by bureaucratic decisions imposed from outside and above. The motivation of those involved will be stronger if each community is itself given the opportunity of carrying out the literacy project ....

The importance of audio-visual aids for literacy was fully recognized. However, ... Uses of audio-visual aids that would hinder active participation and human dialogue should be banned. Programmes should be drawn up in consultation with those concerned, through an exchange of information on significant experiences........

Literacy work should encourage the participants to acquire a wide range of communication skills..........

The use of complicated equipment which the recipient community could not fully control should not be encouraged, and such assistance should under no circumstances be allowed to influence national policies.

Literacy work is of world-wide concern, requiring that ideological, geographical and economic distinctions be transcended.

While its primary field of operation is in the Third World, the new international order gives it a universal dimension, through which the concrete solidarity of nations and the common destiny of man must find expression.

ANNEXURE C

INTRODUCING FRANK C LAUBACH'S "FORTY YEARS WITH THE SILENT BILLION"

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